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WORK ORIENTATION OF STAFF IN THE EDMONTON PUBLIC
SCHOOL SYSTEM: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

by



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A THESIS

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ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken to examine and compare the work orientation of a particular class of employees in a public bureaucracy - namely teachers in the Edmonton Public School System. As such it sets out to examine the relative degrees of bureaucratization of these levels and to investigate some of the relationships that may exist between "service" orientation and other variables. In addition, this study also compares its findings with those of previous researchers in the field whose work guided this study.

A review of the literature on the formation and evolution of the concept of work orientation is presented initially to build a foundation upon which the preferred work orientation of teachers may be examined.

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PART I
PROBLEMS AND APPROACHES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION: NATURE OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to examine and compare the "work orientation" of employees at a certain level in a public bureaucracy. The setting here is the Edmonton Public School System, with the principal subjects of study being the teachers at the elementary, junior, and senior high school levels. The insights which guided this research undertaking were provided by earlier studies in the field of bureaucracy and from personal experience as a Research Assistant to Dr. Emile S. Shihadeh. As such, the present research serves as a further inquiry into problem areas and issues dealt with earlier.¹

¹Peter M. Blau in The Dynamics of Bureaucracy (2nd ed.; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1963), focused upon the interpersonal relations that developed in two formal organizations and upon the ways in which these relations influenced operations. In a study which occurred at approximately the same time, but quite independently, Roy G. Francis and Robert C. Stone in their book on Service and Procedure in Bureaucracy (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1956), examined the hypothesis that bureaucracy implies that its members will be procedurally oriented and that bureaucracy implies impersonal relations. This led to a Doctoral Dissertation by Richard Holger Stub, "Attitudes Toward Formal Structures in Two Public Bureaucracies," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Department of Sociology, University of Minnesota, 1958), which investigated some of the relationships between service orientation and certain elements of the organizational environment. The scales formulated by Stub, were utilized by Emile Saleem Shihadeh in an exhaustive study he carried out to examine the bureaucracy of an emerging nation in which the traditionalist point of

Some of the fundamental questions which underlie this study are: what elements of organizational environment assist in the formation of "bureaucratic"² attitudes? Can there be differences in the degree of bureaucratization³ for different groups of employees? Is the degree of bureaucratization related to the age, sex, level of education, or experience of the individual? And finally, what significance does all this have for the study of organizational behavior? While it

view has been deeply imbedded, "The Jordanian Civil Service: A Study of Traditional Bureaucracy," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Department of Business and Public Administration, Cornell University, 1965).

²The literature dealing with bureaucracy suggests that bureaucracy is seen either, as the epitome of rationality and of efficient implementation of goals and provision of services, or, as an instrument of power whereby control may be exercised over people, and of the continued expansion of such powers. For example, Weber considers the bureaucracy to be the most rational means of implementing a given goal, Max Weber, The Theory of Social and Economic Organization, trans. A.M. Henderson and Talcott Parsons; ed. Talcott Parsons (New York: Oxford University Press, 1947), while writers such as Robert Michels, Political Parties (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1949) dealt with the concentration of power in the hands of the bureaucracy. The various subgroups within the bureaucracy, according to Eisenstadt, "may have different conceptions and attitudes towards the organization's goals and needs, and these differences must be taken into account, when studying the functioning of any bureaucratic organization. S.N. Eisenstadt, "Bureaucracy, Bureaucratization, and Debureaucratization", Administrative Science Quarterly, 4 (1959), p. 304.

³The works of Bendix and Selznick attempted to analyze the conditions under which bureaucracies usurp power illustrating Michels "iron law of oligarchy". Reinhardt Bendix, "Bureaucracy and the Problem of Power", Public Administrative Review, 5, (1945), pp. 194-209,; Philip Selznick, TVA and the Grass Roots: A Study in the Sociology of Formal Organizations (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1949). Generally, the process of bureaucratization, again as noted by Eisenstadt, refers to an emphasis by the bureaucracy on the extension of its power over many areas beyond its initial purpose, "the growing internal formalization within the bureaucracy, the regimentation of those areas by the bureaucracy." op. cit., p. 303.

may not be possible to provide the complete answer to all these questions, it is hoped that the study may further the growing body of knowledge in the field of bureaucracy.

Theoretical Background

This section is devoted to providing the theoretical and empirical background which led to the specific problems of the present research. As such, a review of the relevant studies will be made. However, first of all it is pertinent to show why the study of bureaucratic organizations is so significant. A number of authors suggest that modern society is characterized by a complexity of specialized goals and specialized formal "bureaucracies" devoted to the realization of such goals.⁴ While most authors writing on bureaucracies deal with the complexity of large scale organizations, Etzioni in particular noted that, "large complex organizations constitute one of the most important elements which make up the social web of modern societies,"⁵ since this type of organiza-

⁴See: Chester I. Barnard, The Function of the Executive (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1938), pp. 65-74; Blau, op. cit., Amitai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations, (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1961); Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (3rd ed.; Toronto, Ontario: Collier-McMillan Canada, Ltd. 1968); Phillip Selznick, "Foundations of the Theory of Organization," American Sociological Review, 13 (1948), pp. 25-35; Herbert Simon, "On the Concept of Organizational Goal," Administrative Science Quarterly, 9 (1964), pp. 1-22.

⁵Amitai Etzioni, A Sociological Reader on Complex Organizations (2nd Ed.; Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1969), p. vii.

tion satisfies a large portion of society's material, social, and cultural needs. It is this aspect of modern society that Weber had in mind when he wrote about the "bureaucratization of the world."⁶

Bureaucracy is a term of ambiguous meaning - it enjoys both a technical definition and a popular stereotype, thus making it necessary to differentiate between the two. For instance it has often been used pejoratively to symbolize blundering impersonal officials, slow operation and buck-passing, conflicting directives, duplication of effort, rigidity, and red tape.⁷

Merton provides a discussion of some of these negative or "dysfunctional" aspects of bureaucratic organization when he says:

The bureaucratic structure exerts a constant pressure upon the official to be methodical, prudent, dis-

⁶Max Weber, "The Essentials of Bureaucratic Organization: An Ideal-Type Construction," in Robert K. Merton, Ailsa P. Gray, Barbara Hockey, and Hanon C. Selvin, Reader in Bureaucracy (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1952) p. 26

⁷Robert M. MacIvor, The Web of Government (New York: Macmillan Co., 1947) pp. 320-321; Robert K. Merton, "Bureaucratic Structure and Personality," Reader in Bureaucracy, eds. Robert K. Merton, Ailsa P. Gray, Barbara Hockey and Hanon C. Selvin (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1952) pp. 361-372; L. von Mises, Bureaucracy (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1944). Others emphasizing the negative aspects of bureaucracy include Phillip Selznick, "An Approach to a Theory of Bureaucracy", American Sociological Review, 8 (1943), pp. 47-54; Arthur K. Davis "Bureaucratic Patterns in the Navy Officers Corps", Reader in Bureaucracy, op. cit., pp. 397-410; and also, Goodwin Watson, "Bureaucracy as Citizens See It", Journal of Social Sciences, 1, (1945) pp. 4-13.

ciplined. If the bureaucracy is to operate successfully, it must attain a high degree of reliability of behavior, an unusual degree of conformity with prescribed patterns of action. Hence the fundamental importance of discipline which may be as highly developed in a religious or economic bureaucracy as in the army. Discipline can be effective only if the ideal patterns are buttressed by strong sentiments which entail devotion to one's duties, a keen sense of the limitation of one's authority and competence⁸ and a methodical performance of routine activities.⁸

Thus Merton assesses the impact of bureaucratic organizations on employee personalities, and equates its success with a high degree of conformity to rules and prescribed patterns of action. Merton argues that under the bureaucratic form, the structural elements of this type of organization promote an "over-conformity" which has a negative effect in the attainment of organizational objectives. Thus, he concludes that:

Adherence to rules, originally conceived as a means, becomes transformed to an end-in-itself; there occurs the familiar process of displacement of goals whereby 'an instrumental value becomes a terminal value'. Discipline readily interpreted as conformance with regulations, whatever the situation, is seen not as a measure designed for specific purposes but becomes an immediate value in the life organization of the bureaucrat. This emphasis resulting from the displacement of the original goals, develops into rigidities and an inability to adjust readily.⁹

Merton's discussion of the negative features of bureaucracy was drawn from Weber's definition and description. According to Weber,¹⁰ a bureaucracy is defined as a form

⁸Merton, op. cit., p. 365.

⁹Merton, Ibid., p. 253.

¹⁰Weber, op. cit., pp. 330-34.

of organization in which there are: (1) fixed and official areas of jurisdiction defined by rights and duties prescribed in written regulations; (2) authority relations between positions, which are in hierarchial order; (3) appointment and promotion based on contractual agreements and regulated accordingly; (4) technical training a formal condition of employment; (5) fixed monetary salaries; (6) a system of central files; and, (7) official activities which demand the full time of the employee and are clearly separated from his private or personal life. These constituent elements of Weber's ideal-type are all found in the particular organization under study - the Edmonton Public School System.¹¹

Ideally, as constructed by Weber, bureaucracy is that form of organization consistent with efficiency and rationality. Weber states:

The fully developed bureaucratic mechanism compares with other organizations exactly as does the machine with the non-mechanical modes of production. Precision, speed, unambiguity, knowledge of the files, continuity, discretion, unity, strict subordination, reduction of friction and of material and personal costs - they are raised to the optimum point in the

¹¹This does not mean that the Edmonton School System is the same as any other organization which is bureaucratic, it just allows one to classify it into this category - separate organizations within this classification may differ markedly in the degree to which they possess the elements of a bureaucracy. Weber emphasizes that an ideal type simplifies and exaggerates the empirical evidence in the interest of conceptual clarity. Rolf E. Rogers summarizes various views on Weber's Ideal type and concludes that it is "a utopian construct which is primarily rational and abstract ... normatively ideal, therefore, in its conceptual purity it cannot be found empirically anywhere in reality." Rolf E. Rogers, Max Weber's Ideal Type Theory. (New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1969), p. 91.

strictly bureaucratic administration.¹²

By rationality Weber seems to mean the kind of organization in which goals are clearly conceived and all conduct except that designed to achieve the particular goal is eliminated.

In addition to rationality, Weber describes two other major characteristics of this "pure" or "ideal" model - impersonality and routinization. "Impersonality" means that bureaucracy is a system whereby the office and the individual are clearly separable; that is, the powers and duties of an office or position are detached from the individual who fills such an office. "Routinization" refers to the fact that the activities and relationships of the employees are regularized and simplified. The official tends to become disciplined to follow precisely the rules and procedures of his office. The net effect of such rationality, impersonality, and routinization, is that bureaucracy as a mode of organization has all the advantages over other modes that the machine has over the individual worker.

Merton points out, however, that the very elements that lead to the efficiency of the bureaucratic mode of organization, as noted by Weber, also lead to many of the dysfunctions associated with it.¹³ Thus we have shown up to this point, that the ideal bureaucracy as envisaged by Weber,

¹²Max Weber, Essays in Sociology, trans. H.H. Gerth and C.W. Mills (New York: Oxford University Press, 1946) p. 214.

¹³Merton, op. cit., p. 105 defines the term as "those observed consequences which lessen the adaption or adjustment of the system". He particularly refers to dysfunctions of bureaucracy pp. 251-254.

may have some dysfunctional aspects within it. The School System, as shall be shown later, is a large complex organization of the type described which may indeed contain some of these dysfunctional behavioral consequences which Merton described.

One way of dealing with the consequences of behavior of an individual is through Parsonian Theory,¹⁴ which is based upon an action frame of reference between an actor and a situation. In Parson's terms this means that "the central mechanism must always be some notion of actors orienting themselves to situations, with reference to various goals, values and normative standards."¹⁵ To what extent this concept of orientation will be useful in large organizations such as the Edmonton Public School System shall be the subject of investigation. However, in shaping one's goals, values, and normative standards, the individual is constrained by his "need dispositions"¹⁶ as well as the normative aspects of

¹⁴Talcott Parsons, "Pattern Variables Revisited", American Sociological Review, 25 (1960). The author refers to the orientation and modality aspects of function to classify the basic structural and processual components of action systems, i.e., orientations of actors and modalities of objects in the situation. The author notes that "the concept orientation, which for the personality is comparable to that of attitudes, is in fact a structural concept and designates a relatively stable aspect of a system. Talcott Parsons, The Social Theories of Talcott Parsons ed. Max Black (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963) p. 337.

¹⁵Edward C. Devereux, Jr., "Parsons' Sociological Theory" in The Social Theories of Talcott Parsons, Ibid., p. 19.

¹⁶In Parsons' formal description of his theoretical concepts, need-dispositions are the only units in the system.

society. The key word¹⁷ here is "value", one type of need-disposition which Parson describes as the adherence to a principle or rule of behavior that reflects the presence in the actor of the acceptance of certain "oughts".¹⁸ Hence, we may conclude that orientations arise, in part at least, to what one feels ought to be. This implies that although various individuals may have exactly the same goals and are constrained by the same normative standards, they may possess different orientations because of how they think things ought to be done. In other words, orientation may be described as a predisposition to act in a certain way - a definition which also fits the term "attitude".¹⁹ Rosenberg and Hovland point

Parsons suggests that it involves both an activity (a performance) and a type of satisfaction (a sanction). Toward a General Theory of Action, eds., T. Parsons and E.A. Shils (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1951.)

¹⁷Goals are simply a state of affairs regarded as desirable and worth striving toward while normative standards are those which are imposed upon us by society as a whole - thus we are left with defining the term "value", in order to appreciate how orientations arise.

¹⁸Ibid. Various other writers have helped to sharpen this sort of approach by also emphasizing the concept of value and by suggesting that the cognitive aspect of a person's attitude may consist largely of expectations about how his values shall be served by the attitude object. I. Chein, "Behavior Theory and the Behavior of Attitudes", Psychological Review, 55 (1948); V.V. French, "The Structure of Sentiments", Journal of Personnel, 15 (1947), F. Heider, "Attitudes and Cognitive Organization", Journal of Psychology, 21 (1946); A.L. Hilliard, The Forms of Value (New York: Columbia University Press, 1950); and, E.C. Tolman, "A Psychological Model", in Toward a General Theory of Action, op. cit.

¹⁹Rosenberg and Hovland use this as a typical definition in Milton J. Rosenberg and Carl I. Hovland, Attitude Organization and Change (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1960), p.1.

out however, that since they are predispositions.."they are not directly observable or measureable. Instead they are inferred from the way we react to certain stimuli." ²⁰ They go on to note that "the types of response that are commonly used as 'indices' of attitude fall in three major categories: cognitive, affective, and behavioral." ²¹ It is in the category of cognitive responses that we are dealing with in this study when we ask respondents to answer in terms of what they felt "ought to be".

Thus the notion of value implies a structure which dictates the thinking and opinion of individuals as evidenced by actions or opinions. Now if opinions and beliefs are related to values, we should find that individuals have a characteristic orientation toward various attitude producing stimuli - selected aspects of the organization in this case. Following Francis and Stone, ²² orientations were studied by asking questions about the policies of the organization with reference to major characteristics of the system. The interest was not, for example, in the files of the agency per se, but rather in the orientation of employees towards these files.

²⁰ Ibid., p. 1.

²¹ Ibid., p. 1. The terms may be described as follows: cognitions are perceptual responses; affective responses are sympathetic nervous responses; and, behavioral responses are observed overt actions.

²² Roy G. Francis and Robert C. Stone, Service and Procedure in Bureaucracy (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1956).

The concept of orientation may therefore be partially dependent upon the specific duties that an individual within the bureaucracy is responsible for. It is then in this context that we shall now examine the findings of a number of authors in their discussions of role specialization. For instance, Abrahamson in discussing those elements which lead to efficiency in a bureaucracy states that "these features result in and are crystallized in terms of role specialization."²³ Abrahamson goes on to state:

...role specialization is the hallmark of the bureaucracy. Individuals occupy positions because of their specialized knowledge which must be objectified; their authority is correspondingly restricted, and the ties which exist between officials are based upon structural positions, exclusive of interpersonal effect...The whole orientation of the organization pushes incumbents to adjust to the organization rather than the other way around.²⁴

Thus, the administration of the bureaucracy maximize the needs of the organization for stability and minimizes the needs of the individuals within in producing a certain orientation to one's work.²⁵

Role specialization, quite naturally, leads to the

²³M. Abrahamson, The Professional in the Organization (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1967), p. 4

²⁴Ibid., p. 6

²⁵This concept of work orientation is discussed at greater length later in this chapter. The particular orientation which we suggest role specialization leads to is what the literature calls procedural orientation.

professionalization of that role.²⁶ Professional training, however, produces a strong identification with a professional role and this "produces an orientation to horizontal, collegial authority which is directly antithetical to the bureaucratic conception of strict, vertical, unilateral authority."²⁷ William Goode defines this aspect of professionals as containing what he terms a strong service orientation.²⁸ Cheek specifically examines the question of whether the role of the teacher is a professional role or not. He concludes that "teachers remain vulnerable, in a highly 'unprofessional' way, to bureaucratic demands."²⁹

A number of empirical approaches to the concept of orientation in bureaucracy were brought forth by a number of authors whose work we shall now examine. For instance, a

²⁶Neil H. Cheek Jr. examines the definition of profession and uses it to refer to the degree of skill and finesse with which tasks are performed, i.e. role specialization, "The Social Role of the Professional" in Abrahamson, op. cit., p. 9.

²⁷Abrahamson, op. cit., p. 8.

²⁸This is one of two criteria which the author uses to distinguish professionals from other occupations, the other one being a protracted period of formal training in abstract knowledge. Goode refers to service orientation occurring when members of an occupational group utilize their skills on behalf of other members of the society. William J. Goode, "Encroachment, Charlatanism and the Emerging Profession: Psychology, Sociology and Medicine," American Sociological Review, 25, 1960.

²⁹Cheek, op. cit., p. 16. He arrives at this conclusion for the following reasons: they lack a body of abstract knowledge; interaction is denied the sanctity of privileged communication; and, their decisions are subject to appeal to higher authority.

study by Reissman³⁰ on the role conceptions in a public bureaucracy provided one of the initial empirical investigations of orientation in an organization, and could very well be one approach to the study of orientation in the Edmonton Public School System. He conceived of these roles in terms of the individual's response to "three functionally interrelated levels of defining the situation in which the role is performed."³¹ Reissman's study brought forth the suggestion of four bureaucratic role types: (1) the Functionalist, oriented to an outside professional group; (2) the Specialist, oriented to this professional group on one hand, while on the other hand he identifies enough with the hierarchy to over-conform to rules and regulations; (3) the Service Bureaucrat, who is oriented to the hierarchial structure, but also follows a competing norm of service to the clientele; and, (4) the Job Bureaucrat, who defines his job largely in terms of self-interest and career advancement - "he is immersed entirely within the structure."³²

These empirical types which Reissman defined were further described by Gouldner³³ under the heading of cosmopolitanism and localism, another approach which could be

³⁰ Leonard Reissman, "A Study of Role Conceptions in a Bureaucracy," Social Forces, 27 (1949).

³¹ Ibid., p. 306.

³² Ibid., p. 309.

³³ Alvin W. Gouldner, "Cosmopolitans and Locals: Toward an Analysis of Latent Social Roles -1,2," Administrative Science Quarterly, 2 (1957-1958), pp. 281-306; 444-80.

applied to the teachers in the Edmonton Public School System. The direction of the orientation, i.e., inner or outer, was viewed as falling along a continuum.³⁴ They are differentiated by varying degrees of organizational loyalty, commitment to specialized skills, and orientation to outside reference groups. To be cosmopolitan is to be low in organizational loyalty, high in commitment to specialized skills, and high in orientation to outside reference groups. The locals are opposite on each of these dimensions. The concern here, of course, is the effect that is manifested in the individuals work orientation according to the service-procedural dimension.³⁵ However, as noted by Abrahamson, "despite the indications of the effects of cosmopolitanism, the antecedents of this orientation have been empirically elusive."³⁶ Abrahamson goes on to say that for some it "...may be simply a learned orientation. For others, however, strong personality needs may be a predisposing force toward the acceptance of certain orientations..."³⁷ This statement by Abrahamson raises some questions with regard to what orientation one might expect from certain personality types and whether there should be a positive relationship between personality and role specialization or profession. Merton, in addition to

³⁴Methodologically, the same approach was utilized in this research. A Likert type scale was used to show different degrees of service orientation.

³⁵A fuller discussion of these terms occurs later in this chapter.

³⁶Abrahamson, op. cit., p. 61.

³⁷Ibid., p. 62.

Abrahamson, also suggests the need for a more psychological type of explanation in his discussion of bureaucratic structure and personality, when he asks questions such as:

To what extent are particular personality types selected and modified by the various bureaucracies...? Inasmuch as ascendancy and submission are held to be traits of personality, despite their variability in different stimulus-situation, do bureaucracies select personalities of particularly submissive or ascendent tendencies?...do various systems of recruitment...select different personality types.³⁸

Peter Blau in The Dynamics of Bureaucracy³⁹ describes an analysis he made of a bureaucratic structure. Instances of overconformity and resistance to change, although sometimes enhanced by a dependence on hierarchial authority, were found to be alleviated by such factors as employment security and professional orientation.⁴⁰ That is, the relationships and sanctioning power inherent in a hierarchial authority structure would foster overconformity, whereas the relative employment security of public employees would lessen the tendencies toward ritualism. He concludes that this would be particularly true "if the development of a professional orientation neutralizes feelings of dependency."⁴¹ Overconformity was also found to be alleviated by two other factors -

³⁸Merton, op. cit., p. 371.

³⁹Peter M. Blau, The Dynamics of Bureaucracy (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1963).

⁴⁰Blau defines professional orientation in terms of an identification with professional values and norms which make the process of attaining professional objectives a source of satisfaction.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 236.

allegiance to work groups and changing organizational goals.⁴² In the two public bureaucracies that Blau studied, he found that opposition to change in one of the agencies was rare. This, he stated, was partially due to the greater degree of professional orientation that existed in the one agency as opposed to the other.

Blau, in discussing the concept of professional orientation, relates it to behavior in a bureaucratic organization.⁴³ He argues that this type of orientation is one of the necessary elements so that employees will react to dysfunctions in a spontaneous manner, and therefore be able to develop the means for achieving the overall organizational goals. He defines professional values and norms as those

⁴²Perrow discusses the variance of organizational goals by distinguishing between "official" and "operative" goals in three types of organizations. Charles Perrow, "The Analysis of Goals in Complex Organizations", American Sociological Review, 26 (1961).

⁴³See also V. Thompson, "Bureaucracy and Innovation", Administrative Science Quarterly, 10 (1965); T. LaPorte, "Conditions of Strain and Accomodation in Industrial Research Organizations", Administrative Science Quarterly, 10 (1965); R. Fagiuri, "Value Orientations and the Relationship of Managers and Scientists", Administrative Science Quarterly, 10 (1965); and, W. Scott, "Reactions to Supervision in a Heteronomous Professional Organization", Administrative Science Quarterly, 10 (1965), all of whom deal more or less explicitly with the conflict between the professional and the bureaucratic structure in which he works. Three others, Glaser, Abrahamson, and, Friedson and Rhea examine the operation of professional value systems. B. Glaser, "Differential Association and the Insitutional Motivations of Scientists", Administrative Science Quarterly, 10 (1965); M. Abrahamson, "Cosmopolitanism, Dependence-Identification, and Geographical Mobility", Administrative Science Quarterly, 10 (1965); and, E. Freidson and B. Rhea, "Knowledge and Judgement in Professional Evaluations", Administrative Science Quarterly, 10 (1965).

"which make the process of attaining professional objectives a source of satisfaction."⁴⁴ This implies that any employee in a bureaucracy may be more or less professionally oriented. That is, it constitutes a set of values and beliefs which are not exclusive to any one group or type of worker.⁴⁵ It is this implication which is of particular significance in that we intend to measure these varying degrees of a particular type of orientation amongst the teachers in the Edmonton Public School System.

Richard Hall, in his recent study on "Professionalization and Bureaucratization",⁴⁶ notes that while professionalism is a matter of degree, the attributes of the professional model serve to delineate it from other occupations. This professional behavior may be defined as a combination of "structural and attitudinal" aspects: the structural aspects being those characteristics which are part of the structure of the organizations, such as educational requirements, while the attitudinal aspects are those which concern the orienta-

⁴⁴Blau, op. cit., p. 257.

⁴⁵Most attempts at establishing criteria to differentiate the professional from other occupations have emphasized the training and commitment aspects-this is only partially useful for our purposes and an examination directed at the professional's work role and its social significance is of greater significance for our purposes. See Goode, op. cit., William J. Goode, "Community within a Community: The Professions", American Sociological Review, 21 (1956); Everett C. Hughes, "Professions in Society" Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, 26 (1960) and, Richard H. Hall, "Professionalization and Bureaucratization", American Sociological Review, 33 (1968).

⁴⁶Hall, Ibid.

tion of the person involved.⁴⁷

In discussing professional orientation, Blau cites some of the conditions of employment which he believes contribute to this kind of orientation. The personnel policies of the civil service promote professional orientation in that:

Recruitment standards assure that only applicants with the technical training required for a job are appointed. The relative security of civil service positions and the consequently long tenure of most officials encourage loyalty to the organization and its values, particularly since the specialized qualifications acquired in many years of experience in government agencies cannot be utilized in private industry...The system that prevents civil servants from deriving satisfaction from hopes of spectacular advancements probably also constrains them to find gratification in their work and thus invites a professional attitude toward it.⁴⁸

Another empirical study on bureaucratic organizations was carried out by Francis and Stone.⁴⁹ This study deals exclusively with the procedural orientation of employees to clients in a state employment agency. The authors tested the so called "classic" theory of bureaucracy as set forth by Max Weber and Robert Merton. The classic theory predicted a dominance of impersonality and procedural orientation in a bureaucratic organization. On the basis of their empirical evidence, the authors called for a reassessment of this concept since they found that there were competing or conflicting patterns of behavior rather than the one dominant pattern as

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 92.

⁴⁸Blau, op. cit., p. 257-58.

⁴⁹Francis and Stone, op. cit.

suggested by Weber and Merton. That is, they found that, under certain conditions, a "service orientation", which was defined as the opposite to an emphasis on procedure or "procedural orientation", was emphasized in contradiction to the earlier theorists. The authors state that they:

see manifested in this agency simultaneously an official mode of organization an action termed bureaucratic, and, for lack of a better word, an indigenous or unofficial mode of organization and action that is a primitive form of professionalism.⁵⁰

This assumes the existence of a continuum ranging from procedure to service orientation, and shall be utilized in the present study for scale construction as well as for formulating the working hypothesis of the study.

Francis and Stone frequently refer to the concepts of "procedural" or bureaucratic orientation, and "service orientation". They describe the two terms thusly:

...to determine whether an employee in the decision-making process is procedurally oriented, there must be some alternatives open to him (even if he does not perceive the alternatives). In short there must be some conflict between following the rules and achieving the goals of the organization...the procedurally oriented employee will apply the rules in a categorical fashion, even when they might have been otherwise interpreted...he applies them regardless of the situation...The non-procedurally oriented person (if properly motivated) applies the rules in a flexible fashion - interprets them to fit the situation - thereby achieving the goals of the system. This flexibility in interpreting the rules we shall call a "service orientation".⁵¹

Francis and Stone then move from a discussion of procedural or service orientation to a discussion of

⁵⁰Ibid., p. 135.

⁵¹Ibid., p. 40.

"principles of organization". They write:

To sum up the difference between the two principles, we would say that the bureaucratic mode emphasizes the system of organization and the subordination of the individual to it, whereas the professional mode emphasizes the role of the individual and subordinates the system of organization to individual activity and colleague relations. The bureaucratic principle centers on the relations of persons to one another by means of the system, whereas the professional principle centers on the relation of an individual to his work. These two modes of organization... are not types of organization, but principles of organization. Of course...any organization may contain both of these opposing principles in varying degrees and varying combinations. Further, various segments or levels of a given institutional group may place different emphasis on these principles.⁵²

While Francis and Stone refer to a professional mode of organization, they do not elaborate on what Blau has defined as a professional orientation, as such, they merely associate it with the principle of organization and not as a set of values and beliefs.⁵³ From a behavioral point of view, however, there must be a certain value orientation underlying a mode of organization. It is such a set of attitudes that Francis and Stone attempted to deal with in their list of statements which assessed the existence of a service orientation.

As has been pointed out, each of the last two studies makes specific reference to "professional orientation."

⁵²Ibid., p. 157.

⁵³A belief may be defined as "an enduring organization of perceptions and cognitions about some aspect of the individual's world...a pattern of meanings of a thing; it is the totality of the individual's cognition about the thing", whereas a value is described in such a way as to ensure the highest amount of need satisfaction within an individual. David Krech and Richard S. Crutchfield, Theories and Problems of Social Psychology (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948), p. 150.

Blau refers to it as an important factor in preventing over-conformity to rules, or as he terms it, ritualism. Francis and Stone present the concept of service orientation in connection with their findings that both a bureaucratic and professional principle may be manifested in a complex organization. These studies point out that such a value orientation is important in preventing the negative aspects of bureaucracy which have been implied by the popular stereotype.

The work of Richard H. Stub who utilized the methodology of Francis and Stone in another setting is also relevant here.⁵⁴ Francis and Stone⁵⁵ originally set out the operational definition for service orientation by devising a set of questions pertaining to specific elements of a bureaucratic organization. Their intention was to differentiate between those who viewed the characteristics of the bureaucratic organization as means to organizational ends, or simply as ends-in-themselves. Stub adapted the questionnaire as set forth by Francis and Stone by increasing the number of statements,⁵⁶ and by adding various other

⁵⁴Richard Holger Stub, "Attitudes toward Formal Structures in Two Public Bureaucracies", (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Department of Sociology, University of Minnesota, 1958).

⁵⁵Francis and Stone, op. cit.,

⁵⁶Stub, op. cit., part of the increase is accounted for by the fact that some of the statements of Francis and Stone were broken down into several items.

sections,⁵⁷ only one of which is utilized in this study.⁵⁸ Stub provides the definition of the key variable by noting that service orientation is that value orientation which views the bureaucratic characteristics of the organization as means for achieving goals and not as ends-in-themselves--the opposite kind of orientation is referred to as procedural.

In the present study, an attempt has been made to follow the work of Stub by further examining the relationship of bureaucratic structure to service orientation. As such, we have adopted the terminology as well as the operational definitions as set forth by Stub.

Specifically, an attempt will be made to investigate some of the relationships that may exist between service orientation and certain elements of the organizational environment of a public bureaucracy, as well as to various demographic data. Thus the major part of this study is to examine, on a comparative basis, the "work orientation" of teachers in the Edmonton Public School System. In general, the working hypothesis of this study is that certain factors, relating both to the individual and the social structure of a public bureaucracy, are important in determining the degree of service orientation.

⁵⁷Stub formulated questions to determine job satisfaction, work groups, cliques, social participation, and other demographic details. Stub, op. cit., p. 184.

⁵⁸This study utilizes the questions relating to the index of informality.

Scope and Limitations

More specifically, the objectives of this study are:

1. To consider the general form and setting of the Edmonton Public School System. This is dealt with in Chapter II. The sources of information on this aspect of the study comes from personal interviews with members of the administrative staff and official literature of the Edmonton Public School System.

2. To determine the demographic characteristics in the Edmonton Public School System. These matters are dealt with in Chapter III. All the evidence for the contemporary teacher in Edmonton comes from the questionnaire responses of 216 teachers. Included are 68 respondents from the Elementary level, 65 respondents from the Junior High level, and, 83 from the Senior High level.⁵⁹

3. To determine the "work orientation" of the Edmonton Public School teachers via the questionnaire technique. As noted earlier, a dominant role in guiding this investigation has been played by a previous researcher in the field of bureaucracy, notably Richard H. Stub who utilized the methodology of Francis and Stone with some minor modifications. Thus, the purpose of Part III is to determine and compare the preferred "work orientation" of the teachers in the three levels and to test the Stub Hypotheses.

⁵⁹Supra, pp. 38-39 and Appendix II, p. 115.

Approach and Method

This research reports and analyzes data obtained through the use of a questionnaire.⁶⁰ The first aim of the questionnaire was to obtain demographic information from 216 teachers in the Edmonton Public School System. Questions 1 through 10 were designed to obtain this information.

The major section of the questionnaire (questions 22 through 36) was devoted to the determination of service orientation. As noted earlier, the working hypothesis of this study states that a service orientation, or set of values and beliefs opposite to those viewed as bureaucratic, occur as result of organizational environment. This implies an acceptance of the findings of Blau, Francis and Stone, and Stub, that bureaucratic organization does not always or exclusively imply an orientation toward making ends out of means. Naturally, the orientation may vary with differences in these environmental factors. An important point relevant to the notion of service orientation, as used here, is that the concept is defined by Stub in such a way that, any employee may be more or less service oriented.

In order to establish an operational definition of service orientation, it is necessary to devise a set of questions pertaining to the characteristics of bureaucratic organization as set out by Weber's theory. Since the features

⁶⁰The questionnaire appears in Appendix I.

of the school system correspond to that of a bureaucracy, as shall be shown in Chapter II, the five characteristics which received attention, following Stub, were:

1. The importance of maintaining files and records;
2. an emphasis on technical efficiency;
3. action governed, as far as possible, by rules with a minimum of decision-making falling to the individual employer;
4. a rigid authority structure and its implications for clearly defined channels of communication; and,
5. the importance of the system of organization over and above the importance of the individual and the work he does.

In this research, the 15 questions used, have been adapted by Stub from 8 statements originally developed by Francis and Stone.⁶¹ This study utilizes the Stub questionnaire with minor variations in wording.

As indicated previously, there are a number of ways in which beliefs and attitudes can be measured. One principal classification of measuring instruments is the attitude scale with a number of different types being available.⁶² The method chosen for this study is the one

⁶¹Francis and Stone, op. cit., pp. 63-64.

⁶²Scales have been developed by Bogardees, Thurstone, Likert, and Guttman.

developed by Likert,⁶³ and commonly referred to as "Likert Scales". The main advantage in this method lies in the amount of information derived in that a multi-point⁶⁴ judgement is obtained on each item rather than mere acceptance or rejection as in the Thurstone method.⁶⁵ That is, the scale serves a dual function in that it provides data on the individuals attitude as well as a total score on the attitude dimensions being studied - in this case the service-procedure orientation and the informal-formality levels. Aside from the fact that the Thurstone scale cannot serve this double function, the Likert method is less laborious and "correlates well with Thurstone scales"⁶⁶ in any case, thus making it an ideal choice for our purposes.

Briefly, the Likert procedure⁶⁷ involves the following steps: (1) the collection of a number of statements referring to the subject of study; (2) the applying of these statements to a group of subjects who indicate for each statement their reaction of agree, undecided, and disagree;

⁶³Rensis Likert, "A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes", Archives of Psychology, No. 140 (1932), where the author studied attitudes toward imperialism, internationalism, and toward the Negroe.

⁶⁴A three-point judgement is asked for here, i.e. "agree", "?", and "disagree".

⁶⁵L.L. Thurstone and E.J. Chave, The Measurement of Attitudes (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929).

⁶⁶A.N. Oppenheim, Questionnaire Design and Attitude Measurement, (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1966) p. 133.

⁶⁷Likert, op. cit., Appendix.

(3) the summation for each respondent of responses to all the items, by scoring the above categories 3,2,1, respectively; (4) the examination of the degree of correlation between each item and the total score; and, (5) the elimination of any items that fail to correlate to a substantial degree with the total score. In this study procedures (1) and (2) were bypassed in that we utilized a questionnaire designed by Stub⁶⁸, however, procedures (3), (4), and (5) were followed.

Considering the five general criteria outlined above, 15 statements were combined to form an index of service orientation. Grouped under the headings to which they are relevant, the items according to Stub, are as follows:

1. Importance of files and records:

(#22) "William E. Sexton, writing in the magazine Office Executive, claimed that about 40% of all records and files now maintained 'might just as well fuel a bonfire.'"

(#26) "The importance of maintaining a complete set of records and files must be emphasized."

2. Emphasis on technical efficiency:

(#28) "Persons hired for work should be selected on the basis of their desire to be of service to to the community rather than on the basis of administrative or technical skill."

(#32) "Selection of persons for work in your job should be strictly on the basis of skill."

3. Action governed by rules with a minimum of decision-making falling to the individual employee:

(#24) "A precise and complete set of rules must govern all decisions to ensure an efficient

⁶⁸Stub, op. cit., Appendix I.

organization."

(#27) "The duties of the individual should be loosely defined in order that he may be allowed to exercise his own particular skills to a higher degree."

(#30) "In an organization such as yours it is impossible to have rules that precisely determine the kind of decisions that have to be made."

(#33) "Ideally every job in an organization such as this should be set up so that very little skill would be required and all the individual employees would need to do is follow the proper rules of procedure."

(#36) In an organization such as this it would be best if there were a minimum of rules governing the various decisions that have to be made."

4. Emphasis on a rigid authority structure with clearly defined channels of communication:

(#23) "If an employee has an idea for improving procedures he should be able to go directly to the person in authority to institute his idea."

(#29) "In your organization, a person must be allowed to ignore the chain of command and regular channels of communication when he considers it to be in the best interests of all concerned."

(#35) "With a definite system for transmitting ideas to those that have the authority to put them into effect, only those following the proper channels of communications should be considered."

5. Importance of the system of organization over and above the importance of the individual and the work he does:

(#25) "The individual employee and the work he does should be considered of secondary importance to the system of organization."

(#31) "In an organization of this kind each individual should be thought of as a small unit

in a large and complex whole."

(#34) In an organization such as yours, the emphasis should be on encouraging the individual employee to try and develop his job in his own particular way, and the system of organization should be considered secondary."

Responses were obtained by asking each of the teachers to answer this portion of the questionnaire in accordance with the following directions: "Specify your own idea of what the policy of your workplace ought to be regarding the statements of administrative policy which follow." It is assumed, that with these instructions, the respondents would answer in terms of their own ideas and beliefs rather than on the basis of what actually existed in the various schools. The response categories used were "Agree," "Disagree," and "?". The use of the question mark instead of the more usual "undecided" category was based on the assumption that it would not yield as many responses in the neutral category. The scoring used was three points being given to a response denoting a service orientation, two points given for a response in the question mark category, and one point for a non-service or procedural response.⁶⁹ The result was an "orientation index" which could be used to sum up the questionnaire. Stub contends that since the items included in the index deal directly with the characteristics of bureaucracy, it possesses "face validity." Moreover, the index also

⁶⁹Out of the fifteen items, for eight of them a response of "Agree" denoted a service orientation, and for seven of them, a response of "Disagree" was considered as a response of service orientation.

possesses the validity that comes from being grounded in theory since its content is derived directly from Weber's theory of bureaucracy.

Since the definition of service orientation as put forth by Stub implies the hypothetical construct of attitude or predisposition to act, a reference to "construct validity" is in order here.⁷⁰ The present study utilized a correlation analysis to determine the internal-consistency of the statements comprising the service orientation index.⁷¹

⁷⁰Oppenheim explains construct validity by saying that one tries to give the construct (attitude) "a more precise formulation by saying what sub-variables it pulls together and how it must be related to other attitudinal or perceptual variables and to some aspects of behavior..constructs once obtained, would be expected to enter into relationships with other variables in predictable ways. Validity is inferred from such a network of relationships; this validates both the measure and the theory behind it." Oppenheim, op. cit., p. 76.

⁷¹The rationale for this analysis is that it provides the researcher with a single summary statistic describing the strength of association between two variables. Here, the analysis was used to examine sets of variables in order to determine if they were related in a way which would allow them to be combined into a composite scale or index. This scalability is necessary if the items are to be added together as they were in this study to obtain both the service orientation and informality indices. Items with a Spearman correlation coefficient of .3000 or over at the .001 level of significance were retained for the scale, thus twelve out of the original fifteen items were retained for the service orientation index and six out of seven for the informality index. In addition, a test was performed to determine whether or not the items were able to discriminate among those respondents who score high on the total scale (top third) as well as those who score low (bottom third). It was found that all the items that were retained after the Spearman test were able to discriminate satisfactorily and therefore were retained. For a detailed discussion of validity of the Index of Service Orientation refer to Stub, op. cit., pp. 48-49. See also Appendix B., pp. 194-198 on determining scalability of the Service Orientation Index.

Another major section of the questionnaire (questions 15 through 21) was designed to determine the existence of an informal or egalitarian atmosphere between employees. This section of questions were included in order to determine whether or not differences in the degree of informality experienced by employees were related to an employee's service orientation. The hypothesis being that there is a positive relationship between service orientation and an informal atmosphere between superiors and subordinates.

The significance of informal social interaction in organizations with a high degree of specialization of function rests on the fact that status barriers tend to hamper a free flow of communication. One could assume, without a degree of informality and the resultant freer communication in the hierarchy, that an emphasis on procedures would occur. In a situation where inequality between statuses is stressed, a defense mechanism may arise which manifests itself in the form of being a "rule follower."⁷²

There are, obviously, a number of inherent status distinctions in the system of authority needed for an efficient bureaucratic organization. However, there is significance in the degree to which these distinctions are emphasized, Blau points out that:

since bureaucratic authority rests on social consensus that issuing certain directives is just as much the duty of the superior as compliance with

⁷²See Chapters XII and XIII, "Bureaucracy and Social Change", and "The Dynamics of Bureaucracy", especially pp. 235-6 and pp. 253-4, Blau, op. cit.

these directives is that of the subordinates, such compliance is not experienced as subjugation, while obedience to arbitrary commands of a superior would be. Hence bureaucratic authority itself does not create profound feelings of inequality, although it involves some status differences, but it often gives rise to additional hierarchial distinctions, which are not essential for systematic administration and which destroy all feelings of equality. If subaltern officials are treated as inferiors whose sole duty is to obey detailed orders of their superiors, they have neither sufficient security nor incentive to cope with problems of their work on their own initiative.⁷³

There are a number of ways in which the personal relationships between superiors and subordinates serve to deemphasize formal differences of status: the supervisor may frequently eat or coffee together with the subordinates; the supervisor may make it known that he welcomes suggestions from subordinates, and in fact gives them real consideration; and, the supervisor does not exercise a close watch over everything the subordinate does.

Stub formulated a set of 8 questions on informality, 7 of which were used in this study.⁷⁴ Again, the scoring was simple with three points being given for the highest level of informality, 2 points for a middle attitude and 1 point for the lowest level of informality. Question #21 was an exception in that a 4 point scale was used. Here again, the result was an "informality index" which could be used to sum up the items on the questionnaire. Stub, in this instance again relies on the face validity of the index,

⁷³Blau, op. cit., p. 255.

⁷⁴One of the questions was deemed inappropriate for this study and therefore was eliminated.

however, an item-analysis to determine the internal-consistency of the statements was also carried out here.

Questions 11 and 12 of the questionnaire consider the amount of work interaction of the employees. The hypothesis here is that there is a relationship between service orientation and whether or not an employee deals with employees other than his supervisor.

The last part to be dealt with, questions 13 and 14, relates to the amount of choice the employee perceives he has in handling his duties. In this context, the proposition would be that employees who view that they have a great deal of choice in deciding how to handle their duties will be more service oriented.

In conclusion, and again following Stub, an effort was made to consider the relationship that might exist between the service orientation index to various hypotheses concerning the effect of certain situational factors at the Elementary, Junior High, and Senior High School levels. The following specific hypotheses were used as a guide: (1) that a service orientation is positively related to an informal or egalitarian atmosphere between superiors and subordinates; (2) that employees whose primary functions involve the necessity of dealing with employees, other than their superiors, will tend to be more service oriented than those who do not; and, (3) that employees who view that they have a great deal of choice as to how they handle their

duties, will be more service oriented than those who do not.⁷⁵

There were, of course, limitations to the questionnaire method. First and foremost, there is the problem of interpretation by the respondents. The translation of concepts for the requirements of the study may introduce subtle problems in communication. An effort was made to avoid this by subjecting the questionnaire to the scrutiny of a panel of experts.⁷⁶ This problem was also guarded against during administration of the questionnaire by: (1) instructing all the respondents that questions of interpretation should not be discussed amongst themselves while answering the questionnaire; and, (2) that no interpretations would be made by the researcher during the administration of the questionnaire. A further problem arises due to the negative attitude which is engendered in many teachers due to the battery of tests which many of them are subjected to during the course of the year. This problem was guarded against by keeping the questionnaire as short as possible and informing the teachers beforehand that the test would only take about 10 minutes of their time. A further safeguard to this problem was that, for all of the Elementary and Junior High sample,

⁷⁵This study utilized three out of the ten original hypotheses - the choice of these three were largely determined by the data gathered, i.e., several areas of investigation were eliminated.

⁷⁶The questionnaire was scrutinized critically by six teachers, three principles, one vice-principle and a Research Director. Since no problems arose at this stage and since the questionnaire has been used in a number of similar situations, it was assumed that further pilot work was unnecessary.

the questionnaire was administered at the beginning of regularly scheduled teacher's meetings; in the High School sample, the administration took place while they were free from invigilating final examinations.⁷⁷

The main approach to the use of data in this study was statistical, and a number of tables have been prepared and efforts made through "chi square" tests to assess relationships. The computation of all data was done through an IBM 360 computer using the SPSS Program.⁷⁸

⁷⁷The questionnaire was administered during the course of a day during the final week of the school year while students were writing exams.

⁷⁸Norman H. Nie & Dale H. Bent with C. Hadlai Hull, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company), 1970.

CHAPTER II

INTRODUCTION

The organizational structure of the school system provides the arena in which teachers "work orientation" shall be studied. This structure may be described in terms of the degree of bureaucracy exhibited. Generally speaking, the bureaucratic model describes organizations designed to accomplish large administrative tasks by systematically coordinating the work of many individuals. The specific criteria which describe a bureaucracy have been dealt with earlier¹ - we must now ascertain whether the organization we have chosen to study fits these criteria. Specifically, we shall examine only those criteria which Stub used for the operational definition of service orientation. Following Stub, these include: (1) the importance of maintaining files and records; (2) an emphasis placed on technical efficiency; (3) action governed by rules, as far as possible, with a minimum of decision-making falling to the individual employer; (4) a rigid authority structure and its implications for clearly defined channels of communication; and, (5) the importance of the system over and above the importance of the individual and the work he does. These aspects

¹See Weber's definition, Chapter I.

of bureaucracy are the basis of the analysis of the organizational structure of the school system studied. We shall begin by examining the overall organizational structure and then go on to examine specifically whether the organization fits the criteria as set out above.

The Research Setting

The research project was carried out in the setting of the Edmonton Public School System. The group sampled consisted only of teachers at the elementary, junior high and high school levels. No attempt was made to sample those teachers classified either as kindergarten or "special" teachers because of the great disparity in the numbers in these groups as compared to the other groups sampled and because they are not really established as teaching divisions within the System.

The Edmonton Public Schools are administered under the legal authority contained in enactments of the Government of the Province of Alberta known as the "School Act", being Chapter 297, Revised Statutes of Alberta, 1955; Other legislation such as "The Teaching Profession Act" and "The School Buildings Act", Department of Education General Regulations and Grant Regulations for the operation of schools, and in some respects, "The City Act" also. The function of the Edmonton System therefore, was to implement and administer the provincial law providing for the education of children in the school district of Edmonton. As such an agency, it was empowered to make policy and set out proced-

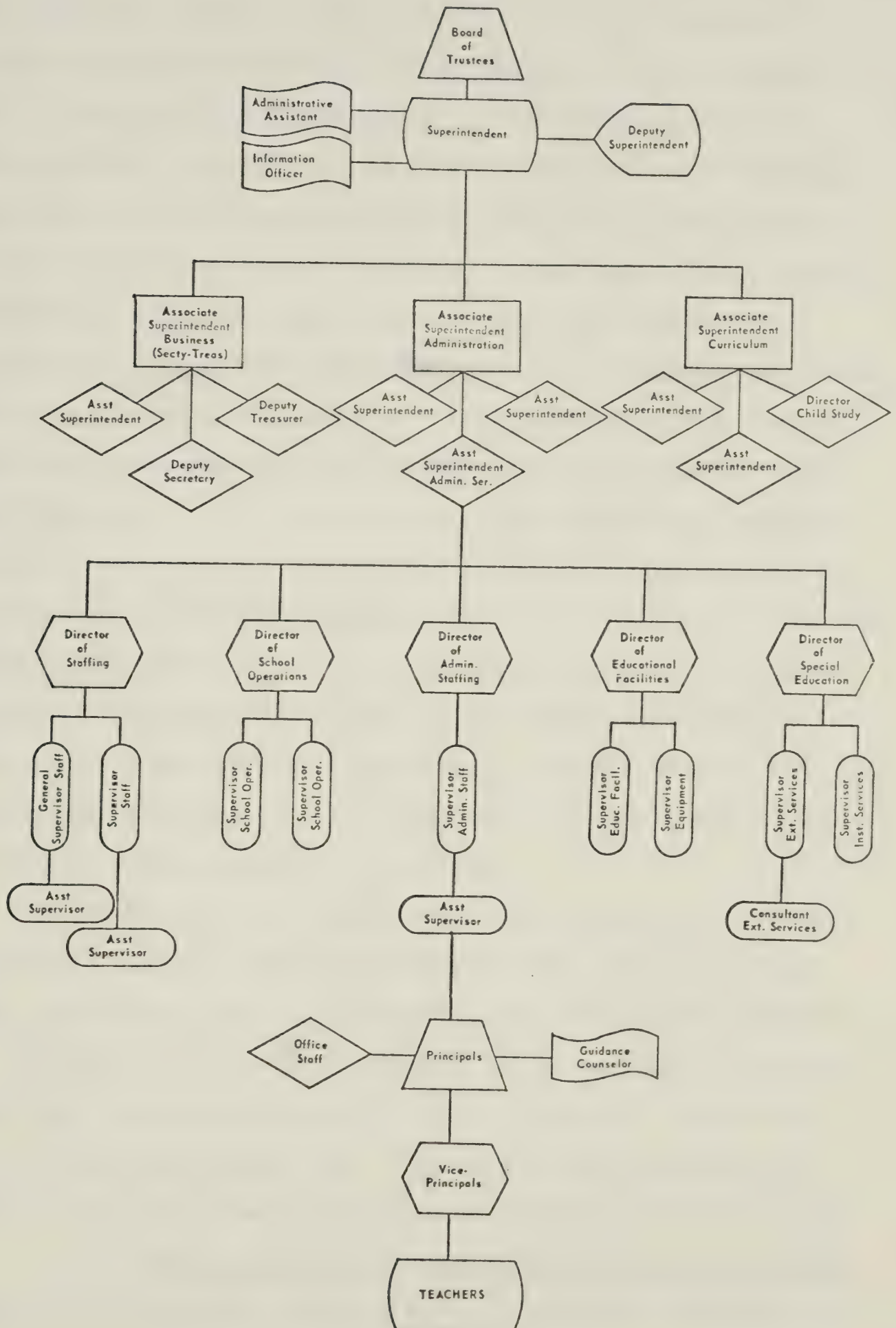
ures to achieve this end.

In carrying out its functions, the System had approximately 5,100 full-time employees on the payroll for the 1969-70 school year. Of this total number, 1,518 would be considered administrative and support staff while 3,582 were teachers in the field. Of this total number of teachers, the breakdown by teaching levels is as follows: 1,603 elementary; 871 junior high; 925 senior high; 4 kindergarten; and, 179 special teachers.² As illustrated in figure 1, at the top of the administrative hierarchy is a seven member, elected Board of Trustees. Directly below this body, and at the top of the paid specialists, are the superintendent and deputy superintendent. Beneath the level of the superintendent, there are three associate superintendents, each in charge of a major division. Each of the three associate superintendents has a number of assistant superintendents beneath them, each in charge of subdivisions. The sub-divisions are divided still further into sections with a director at the head of each. Beneath the level of the directors, there are levels pertaining to supervisors and assistant supervisors.³

The particular division which the principals and

²The sample utilized for this study was drawn from: 6 elementary; 2 junior high; and, 2 senior high schools, and represented 4.24%, 7.46% and 8.9% of these groups respectively. In total, the sample used was 6.35% of the total available group.

³Refer to organization chart, Figure I.



* Compiled from Information Bulletins of the Edmonton Public School District #7.

teachers are directly responsible to, is the Division of Educational Administration. The function of this division is to carry out the responsibilities associated with facilitating the work of the Division of Curriculum Development and with meeting the needs of the schools pertaining to staffing, administrative staffing, school operations, special education, research, and specifications for educational facilities. This particular division was further sub-divided into 3 main sub-divisions, the largest of which was that of Administrative Services, the particular sub-division which was responsible for administrative procedures and organization in the schools. As noted above, this sub-division was headed by an assistant superintendent with 5 directors beneath him, each of whom is in charge of a section within the sub-division. The directors had in turn, supervisors and assistant supervisors under his leadership. It was beneath the assistant supervisor's level that the principals and teachers entered the organizational hierarchy.

With this brief background description, let us now ascertain whether the organization we have chosen to study fits Weber's criteria of bureaucracy as outlined in Chapter I. Specifically, we shall examine those criteria which were used for the operational definition of service orientation as set forth by Holger Stub. Thus the characteristics of bureaucracy which received our attention were the following:

1. The importance of maintaining files and records.

In addition to their teaching duties, teachers are required

to fill out forms and keep files on numerous items. For example, files are kept for such things as: (a) community and Board resource personnel visitations; (b) attendance figures for all students; (c) cumulative records for each student;⁴ (d) demographic details for all students; and, (e) transfers, drop outs and course changes. Furthermore, forms are filled out by teachers on such things as: (a) teachers report on qualifications, salary and experience; (b) supplies from the Department of Welfare; (c) report on absences; (d) notification of change of name and/or address; (e) report cards and evaluation forms; (f) accident forms; and, (g) supplies, textbook, and audio-visual orders.

2. An emphasis on technical efficiency. Beyond the provincial regulations which state minimum qualification for teachers, the policy of the system now is to appoint only those teachers who possess a degree granted from a recognized university.⁵ Thus teachers are certified for their jobs on criteria of technical competence which is inferred from the educational level attained.⁶

3. Action governed by rules, as far as possible with a minimum of decision - making falling to the individual

⁴This is a complete academic and personal history for the student.

⁵Official Board Policy actually only requires two years of education beyond senior matriculation. Policies and By-Laws, Edmonton Public School System, September 1966.

⁶Technical competence is also determined from "practice teaching" sessions which all prospective teachers must go through.

employee. All teachers are supplied with a large looseleaf binder commonly known as the "Blue Book" of Administrative Regulations.⁷ This book specifies rules and regulations on such general topics as Community Relations, Administration, Personnel, Pupils, Instruction and is intended to implement Board policy as closely as possible.

4. A rigid authority structure and its implications for clearly defined channels of communication. Teachers are expressly ordered to conduct professional business only through proper channels. For example, the "Blue Book" specifically requires that teachers not present any complaints or requests to individuals of the Board, but must send them in writing through the principal to the Superintendent of Schools.

5. The importance of the system over and above the importance of the individual and the work he does. The presence of the book on Administrative Regulations in itself is evidence of the importance placed on the system of organization. No direct evidence was found which enumerated or even stated, in ideological terms, the importance of the individual and the significance of his or her work.

From this brief examination of the basic structure of the System and from an analysis of its manuals, we can proceed with confidence that both in actual operation and in the expression of official ideals, the Edmonton Public

⁷Administrative Regulations, Edmonton Public School System. June, 1967.

School System can be classified as an example of a bureaucracy. Its schools are governed by a complex body of law, and the system is characterized by an elaborate division of labor and formal structure of administrative authority. Thus we feel justified in presenting a questionnaire which is formulated on the theory of bureaucracy, and which is intended to evaluate the service orientation of certain employees of this bureaucracy.

As was noted previously, the working hypothesis of this study states that certain factors, relating both to the individual and the social structure of a public bureaucracy, are important in determining the degree of service orientation. We shall, therefore, in Part II, examine the first set of factors - those relating to the individual - the demographic characteristics. The relationship between these demographic characteristics and service orientation will be examined in Part III, in order to determine their statistical significance, that is, whether or not it supports the hypothesis.

PART II

THREE LEVELS: ORIGINS AND BACKGROUND
OF THEIR PARTICIPANTS

CHAPTER III

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

The description of the contemporary teacher in the Edmonton Public School System comes from the responses of 216 teachers to a questionnaire presented to them.¹ Generally speaking, Edmonton's School System is characterized by almost equal numbers of male and female employees, in the younger age groups, with relatively few years of teaching experience but with relatively high educational levels. A very small percentage of those polled come from families where the father was also in the teaching profession. The bulk of the sample grew up in farm or small town environments.

Background Characteristics

Sex. As is shown in Table 1, there are some very noticeable differences in the proportions of males and females teaching at the various levels with females predominating the elementary levels, while male teachers predominate the senior high schools. The junior high school level is found to be roughly

¹See Appendix I for the questionnaire. Also, see Appendix II, where it is shown that the characteristics utilized in this study are representative of the total group of teachers in the Edmonton Public School System.

split between the two sexes. These results thus might indicate that male teachers are more prone to consider teach-

TABLE 1
SEX DISTRIBUTION BY LEVEL

Sex	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
Male	19	27.9	34	52.3	52	62.7
Female	<u>49</u>	<u>72.1</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>47.7</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>37.3</u>
TOTALS	68	100.0	65	100.0	83	100.0

ing a lifetime vocation and therefore strive to attain higher levels of education and consequently end up teaching the higher grades. Perhaps we shall then find that there may be some relationship between the relative distribution of the sexes and the degree of service orientation. If this is so, then it might indicate further research problems, for example: do the sexes have a real difference in preference for the grade levels taught (keeping salary constant); and, does the motivation to get ahead play a significant role in effecting service orientation.

Age. The respondents, as shown in Table 2 range widely in their ages. The largest percentage of teachers fall in the

25 to 34 year category, with over half of them being under 34 years old. The mean age at the elementary level is 28

TABLE 2
AGE DISTRIBUTION BY LEVELS

Age in Years	<u>Elementary</u>		<u>Junior High</u>		<u>Senior High</u>	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)
24 or under	17	25.0	15	23.1	14	16.9
25 to 34	26	38.2	27	41.5	29	34.9
34 to 54	21	30.9	16	24.6	30	36.1
54 or over	<u>4</u>	<u>5.9</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>10.8</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>12.1</u>
TOTALS	68	100.0	65	100.0	83	100.0

years as compared to 29 years in junior high and 32 years in senior high school. Again, the significance of this age distribution will be viewed in terms of work orientation scores, and perhaps we shall find that younger individuals are less rigid and have a higher degree of tolerance to tension - factors which tend to reduce formalism.

Fathers Occupation. To determine whether or not the occupation of the respondents were directly influenced by their fathers occupation, question nine of the questionnaire asks the following: What is or was your fathers main occupation? No attempt was made to determine what their actual occupa-

tion is, only whether it is the same or different from the respondent. The data obtained is compiled in Table 3 below which shows that only a very small proportion of teachers

TABLE 3
FATHERS OCCUPATION BY LEVEL

Category	<u>Elementary</u>		<u>Junior High</u>		<u>Senior High</u>	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)
Same	4	5.9	5	7.7	6	7.2 7.3*
Different	64	94.1	60	92.3	76	91.6 92.7*
No Reply	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTALS	68	100.0	65	100.0	83	100.0

* Adjusted Relative Frequency

followed their fathers vocation. This may be explained by the following reasons: (1) historically there have been more female than male teachers; and, (2) most teachers come from smaller centers that probably have a close tie to the agricultural background of the province.

Geographic Origins

Question ten enquired as to where the respondent spent most of his childhood. The results are shown in Table 4 and indicate that roughly 30% come from a farm back-

TABLE 4
GEOGRAPHIC ORIGIN BY LEVEL

Type of Place	<u>Elementary</u>		<u>Junior High</u>		<u>Senior High</u>	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)
Farm	22	32.4	18	27.7	24	28.9
Village under 2500	12	17.6	12	18.5	10	12.0
Town between 2500 and 5000	3	4.4	6	9.2	7	8.4
City between 5000 and 15000	6	8.8	1	1.5	3	3.6
City between 15000 & 50000	6	8.8	2	3.1	4	4.8
City between 5000 & 100000	4	5.9	2	3.1	10	12.0
City over 100000	15	22.1	24	36.9	25	30.1
TOTALS	68	100.0	65	100.0	83	100.0

ground and from cities with a population size over 100,000 respectively. The largest proportion of teachers come from villages under 2,500 and indicates the trend to urbanization that is already well recognized. This statistic is somewhat surprising since the vast majority of the population reside in the larger centers of the province. The teaching profession may attract such a large number of these

rural or small town people since it offers such benefits as "portability"² and a relatively high status level (especially to people in smaller centers).

Educational Preparation

Level. Table 5 shows that the majority of teachers possess 4 or more complete years of post secondary education.

Senior high teachers lead with 98.7% in this category as com-

TABLE 5
AMOUNT OF POST SECONDARY EDUCATION

Time in Years	<u>Elementary</u>		<u>Junior High</u>		<u>Senior High</u>	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)
3 or less	22	32.4	13	16.9	1	1.2
4	30	44.1	32	49.2	27	32.5
5 or more	16	23.5	22	33.8	55	66.2
TOTALS	68	100.0	65	100.0	83	100.0

pared to 83.0% and 67.6% for junior high and elementary teachers respectively. Table 6 indicates that almost 80%

²The profession may be practiced comparatively easily in most geographic locations. Furthermore, it may present a sense of security in that if the person finds it difficult to adjust to urban living he may move back to a smaller center and still utilize his profession.

of all teachers are in possession of a Bachelors degree at the very least, with the highest percentage being found in the high school sample where 98.8% had a Bachelors degree or better, vis-a-vis junior high and elementary, where the proportions were 71.5% and 68.7% respectively. It is interesting to note that roughly a third of the high school teachers have at least two Bachelors degrees while almost one

TABLE 6
HIGHEST UNIVERSITY DEGREE HELD

Type of Degree	<u>Elementary</u>		<u>Junior High</u>		<u>Senior High</u>	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)
None	21	31.3	12	18.5	1	1.2
Bachelors	36	53.7	40	61.5	37	44.6
2 or more Bachelors	6	9.0	8	12.3	27	32.5
Masters	4	6.0	5	7.7	18	21.7
Other	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTALS	68	100.0	65	100.0	83	100.0

quarter possess a Masters degree. The lowest percentage of non-degreed teachers occurs at the elementary level where 31% do not possess any degree.

Experience

Questions 4 and 5 enquire as to the amount of teaching experience held by the respondents. Table 7 shows the total amount of experience while Table 8 indicates the amount of experience within the Edmonton System alone. Almost one third of the teachers have over 10 years experience with the elementary staff showing the lowest percentage of highly experienced members (20 or more years experience).³ On the other hand Table 8 indicates that over 50% of all the

TABLE 7
AMOUNT OF EXPERIENCE AS A TEACHER

Time in Years	<u>Elementary</u>		<u>Junior High</u>		<u>Senior High</u>	
	(<u>%</u>)		(<u>%</u>)		(<u>%</u>)	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
1 to 4	31	45.6	27	41.5	37	44.5
5 to 9	16	23.5	17	26.2	19	22.9
10 or more	21	30.9	21	32.3	27	32.6

teachers who responded to the questionnaire have less than 5 years experience in the Edmonton system. Again it is the senior and junior high school staffs which have the longest

³While this breakdown was eliminated from Table 7 because it could not be compared to existing data, the sample yielded the following distribution for the category 20 or more years experience: Elementary - 7.4%; Junior High - 13.8%; and, Senior High - 15.7%.

TABLE 8

AMOUNT OF EXPERIENCE IN EDMONTON PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

Time in Years	<u>Elementary</u>		<u>Junior High</u>		<u>Senior High</u>	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)
1 to 5	43	63.2	38	58.4	43	51.8
6 to 10	13	19.1	8	12.4	12	14.5
11 or more	12	17.7	19	29.2	28	33.7
TOTALS	68	100.0	65	100.0	83	100.0

service in the System, i.e. 33.7% of senior high and 29.2% of junior high staffs have 11 or more years of experience within the system, as compared to only 17.7% of elementary teachers. This may indicate that elementary teachers either move to other teaching levels after a few years or else quit the system altogether.

PART III

THREE LEVELS: WORK ORIENTATION

CHAPTER IV

WORK ATTITUDES AND PREFERENCES

The major purpose of this study is to compare the teachers at the various levels of the Edmonton Public School System as to their degree of service orientation. Let us now examine the attitudes and views of the 216 teachers from the three levels involved, in order to examine the generally held proposition that teachers in the Edmonton Public School System should be heavily oriented toward procedure rather than service.

Preferred Work Orientation at the Three Teaching Levels

First there is the situation with respect to each of the three levels in comparison to each other. Such a distribution of service orientation scores, as shown in Table 9 below, reveals that the Elementary level contains the greatest distribution of "high" service orientation scores. While this group is only 6.6% greater than the Senior High level, it is 45.7% greater than the distribution found at the Junior High level. It is interesting to note, however, that although the Elementary and Senior High personnel are relatively close in their distributions at the "high" end, there is an extremely wide disparity at the

"low" end, i.e., the Senior High level contains 42.7% more cases with a low service orientation than does the Elementary level. This finding is not too surprising and might be expected in that the organizational set-up at the Senior High level is such that there is a sub-bureaucracy contained within the system.

TABLE 9
DISTRIBUTION OF SERVICE ORIENTATION RATING
BY TEACHING LEVEL

Service Orientation Rating	<u>Elementary</u> Cases %		<u>Junior High</u> Cases %		<u>Senior High</u> Cases %	
High (30.5-36)	29	42.6	15	23.1	33	39.8
Medium (27.5-30.4)	23	33.8	27	41.5	16	19.3
Low (12-27.4)	16	23.5	23	35.4	34	41.0

In other words, there is a further subdivision into separate departments with perhaps the predicted bureaucratic effects. While it may not be accurately ascertained, an explanation of the high percentage of low service orientation scores may lie in the fact that there are so many department heads contained within this group. It might therefore be suggested that these department heads could account for the higher distribution of procedurally oriented teachers vis à vis the two other groups.

When one considers the distribution of the raw

scores themselves, it is intriguing to note that it is highly skewed in favor of service orientation - more so than might be predicted. In other words, it appears from Table 10 that almost two thirds (66.2%) of the total sample falls into the upper third of the scores.¹ It is again noted that

TABLE 10
DISTRIBUTION OF SERVICE ORIENTATION SCORES
BY TEACHING LEVELS

Range	<u>Elementary</u>		<u>Junior High</u>		<u>Senior High</u>		<u>Totals</u>	
	Cases	%	Cases	%	Cases	%	Cases	%
Lower Third (12-19.3)	0	0.0	1	1.5	0	0.0	1	0.5
Middle Third (19.4-27.6)	16	23.5	22	33.9	34	41.0	72	33.3
Upper Third (27.7-36)	52	76.5	42	64.6	49	59.0	143	66.2

the Elementary sample had the highest percentage distribution in the upper range with the Junior High group coming in second and ahead of the Senior High sample. This obvious discrepancy in ranking, as between Tables 9 and 10 occurs because of the relative distribution of scores within the range. In the Junior High sampling, the mode occurs at a score of 28.0 which, according to Table 9, puts it into a "medium" service orientation rating, while on the other hand the Senior High group has the mode occurring at a value of 32.0 which is delineated as a "high" service orientation

¹The raw scores for the index may range from a low of 12 to a high of 36.

rating.

Perhaps the relative ranking is most easily seen in Table 11 where the measures of central tendency support the findings in Table 9, namely that the Elementary sample has the highest service orientation rating, followed by the Senior and Junior High samples in that order.

TABLE 11
MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDANCY
BY TEACHING LEVEL

Measure	Elementary	Junior High	Senior High
MEAN	29.368	28.215	28.658
MEDIAN	29.944	28.133	29.556
MODE	32.000	28.000	32.000

In summation, it would appear from the results noted above, that the basic proposition concerning the expectation of a larger proportion of procedural orientation for employees of a bureaucracy might require some modification.

However, before attempting any such modification, let us examine the preferred orientation of teachers as it relates to the five major topical headings noted under the previous section on method. It is possible that there may be significant variations on particular matters, consideration of which may greatly assist in pointing out differences between what has been hypothesized and what appears to exist in fact.

Files and records. The responses to questions 22

and 26, dealing with concern for files and records reveals strong similarities between the three teaching levels. However, in examining the questions separately, there is no degree of consistency between them. This is shown in Table 12 which sets forth the responses to the two questions.

While item 22 on the questionnaire indicates a high service orientation for all three groups, item 26 indicates

TABLE 12

IMPORTANCE OF FILES AND RECORDS, BY TEACHING
LEVEL AND RATING OF SERVICE ORIENTATION

Item	<u>Elementary</u>			<u>Junior High</u>			<u>Senior High</u>		
	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low
	(Per Cent)			(Per Cent)			(Per Cent)		
22	61.8	17.6	20.6	56.9	13.8	29.2	65.1	10.8	24.1
26	35.3	30.9	33.8	26.2	29.2	44.6	40.3	20.7	39.0*

* Adjusted Frequency = one missing value

that opinion is relatively ambivalent for the Elementary and Senior High samples, with the Junior High group showing a tendency to a procedural orientation.

Basis for selection. An interesting finding appears in connection with the response to items 28 and 32, dealing with the basis for selection - service to the community or technical skill. Superficially, at least, the data in Table 13 seems to reveal a paradox. Item 32 of the index states that "selection of persons for work in your job should be strictly on the basis of skill." The results to

this question indicate disagreement by all three levels, although the disagreement was strongest in the Junior and Senior High samples. The stronger service orientation in these two groups is somewhat surprising for two reasons: one, both of these groups rate below the Elementary sample for the composite service orientation index; and secondly, these two levels supposedly require more skill.² One possible explanation for these results is that the question

TABLE 13

BASIS FOR SELECTION - TECHNICAL SKILL OR
SERVICE TO THE COMMUNITY, BY RATING OF
SERVICE ORIENTATION

Item	Elementary			Junior High			Senior High		
	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low
	(Per Cent)			(Per Cent)			(Per Cent)		
32	47.1	22.1	30.9	53.8	20.0	26.2	53.0	18.1	28.9
28	23.5	23.5	52.9	18.5	20.0	61.5	9.6	30.1	60.2

may have been interpreted in a way opposite to the popular misconception - not too surprising for a professional group - and they were, in fact, stating that more than technical skill is required, i.e., educational background. When one considers that the majority of teachers who have attained the higher levels of education are in the Senior and Junior levels, in that order, then this would seemingly explain the results obtained.

²Here we are stating a popular misconception in equating education level with skill.

Question 28 which also deals with the basis for selection states, "persons hired for work should be selected on the basis of their desire to be of service to the community rather than on the basis of administrative or technical skill." The data above indicates that the personnel of all three levels are quite similar in showing relatively strong disagreement with the idea that a norm of "service to the community" is more important than technical skills. Again, the Junior and Senior High groups show a stronger disagreement than does the Elementary sample - this time, however, the disagreement points to a procedural orientation rather than the service orientation shown in the previous item.

The paradox referred to earlier is evident when we compare the response patterns for the two items. Such a comparison reveals that when reference is made in item 28 to both skill and community service, the personnel of all three groups generally view skill as being more important. However, when we examine the responses to item 32, which states that employees should be chosen "strictly on the basis of skill," the evidence for the paradox appears. Less than a third of the personnel, in each of the groups, agreed with this item which refers to skill alone.

However, the paradox only exists when the data is viewed in terms of the layman's idea of what teachers attitudes would be. The popularly held norm of "service to

the community" is of little consequence as a criterion of selection when compared with attitudes related to the importance of skill. However, we may also infer that teachers, as a whole, do not regard skill as the be all and end all. This inference constitutes the paradox we have referred to.

Importance of decision rules. The results obtained from questions 24, 27, 30, 33 and 36, shows an extremely strong similarity in the attitudes as expressed by the three groups. In addition, the results are at odds with the basic hypothesis in that a consistently strong service orientation was indicated. In particular, it is interesting to note the results from item 33, "ideally every job in an

TABLE 14

ACTION GOVERNED BY RULES WITH A MINIMUM OF DECISION
MAKING FALLING TO THE INDIVIDUAL EMPLOYEE, BY
TEACHING LEVEL AND RATING OF SERVICE
ORIENTATION

Item	<u>Elementary</u>			<u>Junior High</u>			<u>Senior High</u>		
	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low
	(Per Cent)			(Per Cent)			(Per Cent)		
24	83.7	8.8	7.4	64.6	18.5	16.9	74.7	13.3	12.0
27	85.3	8.8	5.9	81.5	6.2	12.3	78.3	6.0	15.7
30	82.4	8.8	8.8	78.5	6.2	15.4	69.9	13.3	16.9
33	94.1	4.4	1.5	95.4	0.0	4.6	92.8	4.8	2.4
36	83.8	8.8	7.4	70.8	16.9	12.3	84.0*	7.4*	8.5*

* Adjusted frequency - 2 missing values.

organization such as this should be set up so that very little skill would be required and all the individual employ-

ees would need to do is follow the proper rules of procedure," is disagreed with almost completely - only six out of the entire sample of two hundred and sixteen concurred. This result may further strengthen the inferences made regarding items 28 and 32 above.

Authority structure. The responses to questions 23, 29 and 35, dealing with emphasis on a rigid authority structure with clearly defined channels of communication, reveals that the attitudes of the three groups of teachers are similar. However, in examining the items separately, the preferred orientations are not of equal intensities nor are they in accord with the expected procedural orientation as would be predicted from the basic hypothesis.

The responses to item 23, that "if an employee has an idea for improving procedures he should be able to go directly to the person in authority to institute his idea," lie overwhelmingly in the direction of a service orientation. This result, however, may be explained simply by the fact that teachers may not perceive anyone as being between them and the person in authority. In other words, they may look upon their principal as being the ultimate practical authority, thus they have nowhere else to go to present their ideas. If such an explanation is accepted, it may also help explain the responses to items 29 and 35, where the mention of a "chain of command" and "proper channels of communication" would serve to confuse the issue in the

minds of the respondents. These latter two items while showing a trend towards a service orientation are not nearly as strong as item 23.

TABLE 15

EMPHASIS ON AUTHORITY WITH CLEARLY DEFINED CHANNELS
OF COMMUNICATION, BY TEACHING LEVEL AND
BY RATING OF SERVICE ORIENTATION

Item	<u>Elementary</u>			<u>Junior High</u>			<u>Senior High</u>		
	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low
	(Per Cent)			(Per Cent)			(Per Cent)		
23	92.6	2.9	4.4	98.5	0.0	1.5	85.5	8.4	6.0
29	51.5	19.1	29.4	50.8	18.5	30.8	49.4	22.9	27.7
35	55.9	11.8	32.4	64.6	12.3	23.1	68.3*	12.2*	19.5*

* Adjusted relative frequency - 1 missing value

Organization versus individual. The part of the service orientation index which deals with the importance of the system of organization over and above the importance of the individual reveals some interesting differences when the total responses for the three groups are compared. As Table 16 indicates, item 25, which states that "the individual employee and the work he does should be considered of secondary importance to the system of organization," revealed a considerable difference as between the Elementary sample and the Junior and Senior High groups. Whereas, 88% of teachers in the Elementary group disagreed with the statement, thus indicating a strong service orientation, only 26% of Junior High and 40% of Senior High had a similar

TABLE 16

IMPORTANCE OF THE SYSTEM OF ORGANIZATION, BY
TEACHING LEVEL AND BY RATING OF SERVICE
ORIENTATION

Item	<u>Elementary</u>			<u>Junior High</u>			<u>Senior High</u>		
	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low
	(Per Cent)			(Per Cent)			(Per Cent)		
25	88.2	7.4	4.4	26.2	29.2	44.6	40.2*	20.7*	39.0*
31	14.7	13.2	72.1	24.6	10.8	64.6	20.5	22.9	56.6
34	77.9	16.2	5.9	69.2	21.5	9.2	62.2*	20.7*	17.1*

* Adjusted relative frequency - 1 value missing

orientation. That is, the teachers at the Elementary level apparently considered the individual employee and his work as much more important than the system of organization with the opposite holding true for the other two groups.

The response patterns for items 31 and 34 are similar for all three groups with diminishing strength from Elementary to Junior High to Senior High. Furthermore, an ambivalence is shown as between the three items of the index. Item 31, which states that "in an organization of this kind each individual should be thought of as a small unit in a large and complex whole," brought a majority response in the agreement category thus indicating a procedural orientation. On the other hand, item 34, that "in an organization such as yours, the emphasis should be on encouraging the individual employee to try and develop his job in his own particular way, and the system of organi-

zation should be considered secondary," showed agreement amongst the three groups in favor of a service orientation. Again, such an emphasis on service is not what might have been anticipated at the outset.

In summary, the comparison of the response patterns of the three groups to the items of the orientation index revealed a decided similarity in three of the five parts of the index. The attitudes toward: (a) basing selection for employment on technical skill or on desire to be of service to the community; (b) the importance of decision rules; and, (c) the authority structure; all showed a high degree of similarity throughout the analysis. The other two aspects of organizational structure dealt with in the index, revealed a disagreement of attitude in only one item in each of these sections, that is, the attitudes toward, (a) the importance of files and record keeping, and (b) the status of the individual in relation to the importance of the organization.

The differences reported above on the attitude of personnel at the three teaching levels toward the "importance of files and records" is minimal. Of the two items in this category, there is a high degree of similarity for item number twenty-two which states that "... all records and files maintained 'might just as well fuel a bonfire.'" Differences occur only for the other item, which deals with an emphasis on "maintaining a complete set of records and

files," in that two of the groups, Elementary and Senior High, show an almost perfect ambivalence in their orientation while the Junior High sample is decidedly procedural. The difference found here might be explained by virtue of the position that Junior High teachers find themselves in - they are in the position of deciding upon which way their students will eventually be streamed, i.e., either into an academic or technically oriented High School courses - thus a possible rationale for the heavy emphasis on files and records.

The second area in which differences were found, indicated to an even greater degree, that these differences were relatively minimal occurring in only one of three items. The Elementary personnel considered the individual employee and his work as much more important than the system of organization while the opposite was true for the Junior High teachers, although with not the same degree of intensity. The High School sample were almost equally divided in the direction of their responses to this particular item. The same kind of inference, as above, may be made to explain these results. A heavy concern with the responsibility for the streaming of students might be considered to be an integral role of the Junior High group, thus causing them to view the system of organization as being more important than the individual.

Viewing the above responses in total, the data

indicate a very high degree of service orientation among the teachers in the three teaching levels. The results,⁴ then, reaffirm the findings of Blau, Francis and Stone, Stub, and Shihadeh that bureaucratic organization does not always or exclusively imply a procedural orientation. The question that then remains is, can we account for this service orientation by an analysis of the data in terms of other factors? This question will be dealt with in the following chapter.

⁴The assumption being that the results obtained, even though obtained from a small sample, are representative of the total system. This assumption is supported by the close relationships between the actual and sample distributions as is shown in Appendix II.

CHAPTER V
FACTORS INVOLVED IN WORK ORIENTATION

In the following pages we shall be considering two types of relationships: (1) that between service orientation and such demographic data as age, sex, education, geographic origin, and teaching experience; and (2) that between service orientation and a number of organizational factors such as level of informality, nature of work done, and interaction between employees.

Demographic Characteristics and Work Attitudes

Since the questionnaire used in collecting data for this study provided various demographic characteristics, an analysis was made to determine if any of these variables were related to service orientation.

Sex. According to Table 17 below, the chi square of 0.654

TABLE 17
SERVICE ORIENTATION BY SEX FOR TOTAL GROUP

Service Orientation	Male (Per Cent)	Female (Per Cent)
High	33.3	37.8
Medium	30.5	30.6
Low	36.2	31.6

with 2 degrees of freedom is not significant. This indicates that, for all the employees studied, there was no statistically significant relationship between sex and service orientation. A chi square of this size falls between the .70 and .80 level of probability. When a chi square test was made for each of the three teaching levels as in Table 18, again, the chi squares for each of the levels indicates a finding similar to that shown by the total population. However, the chi square, for the Senior High sample of 3.30 with 2 degrees of freedom, while not being statistically significant, falls between the .10 and .20 level of probability. By way of

TABLE 18

SERVICE ORIENTATION BY TEACHING LEVEL AND BY SEX

Service Orientation	<u>Elementary</u>		<u>Junior High</u>		<u>Senior High</u>	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
High	57.9	36.7	17.6	29.0	34.6	48.4
Medium	26.3	36.7	41.2	41.9	25.0	9.7
Low	15.8	26.5	41.2	29.1	40.4	41.9

comparison, the Junior High and Elementary groups are between the .30 and .50, and .20 and .30 levels of probability respectively.

Age. Though the data on age was discontinuous, in that it had been collected on the basis of 10 year intervals, a chi square test of age and service orientation was possible. The data presented in Table 19 revealed a chi square value

of 0.779 with 4 degrees of freedom - an insignificant value statistically. The chi square test was also performed for

TABLE 19

SERVICE ORIENTATION BY AGE LEVEL FOR THE TOTAL GROUP

Service Orientation	24 years or under	25 to 34 years	35 years or over
High	32.6	36.6	36.3
Medium	28.3	31.7	30.7
Low	39.1	31.7	33.0

each of the teaching levels and the results are given in Tables 20, 21 and 22. Although none of the results are statistically significant, it may be argued that there is an indication of a trend developing. In the Elementary group, as shown in Table 20, the chi square value is 5.071

TABLE 20

SERVICE ORIENTATION BY AGE GROUP FOR ELEMENTARY SAMPLE

Service Orientation	24 years or under	25 to 34 years	35 years or over
High	29.4	53.8	40.0
Medium	29.4	30.8	40.0
Low	41.2	15.4	20.0

with 4 degrees of freedom, giving a level of probability of between .30 and .20. The results here suggest that there is weak trend relating age to work orientation with indications being that the younger teachers (24 years or under)

tended to have a lower service orientation score. This trend, if it exists at all, is completely reversed in the Junior High group as is shown in Table 21. In this sample, the results indicate that the younger teachers tend to have a higher service orientation score. The chi square value here was 6.462, which gives a level of probability falling

TABLE 21
SERVICE ORIENTATION BY AGE GROUP FOR
JUNIOR HIGH SAMPLE

Service Orientation	24 years or under	25 to 34 years	35 years or over
High	40.0	14.8	21.7
Medium	33.3	55.6	30.5
Low	26.7	29.6	47.8

between .20 and .10. The results for the Senior High sample, as shown in Table 22, supports the findings in the Elementary group, however, the chi square value of 3.806 gives a level of probability between .50 and .30 - the weakest of the three groups and thus the least reliable.

Since age itself does not show any significant relationship with service orientation, it does suggest that possibly other control variables should be introduced. For example, it might be informative to control for both sex and education in testing the degree of association between the variables.

Length of Employment. Another set of findings concerns the

TABLE 22
SERVICE ORIENTATION BY AGE GROUP FOR
HIGH SCHOOL SAMPLE

Service Orientation	24 years or under	25 to 34 years	35 years or over
High	28.6	41.4	42.5
Medium	21.4	10.3	25.0
Low	50.0	48.3	32.5

amount of teaching experience held by the respondents both in total years and years within the Edmonton System alone. The data resulting from question number 4, "Total number of years of experience in your present job (include this year)," was tabulated in Tables 23 and 24 below.

TABLE 23
SERVICE ORIENTATION BY TIME SPENT ON THE
PRESENT JOB FOR THE TOTAL GROUP

Service Orientation	Time	
	4 years or Under	5 years or Over
High	33.7	37.2
Medium	31.6	29.8
Low	34.7	33.1

The data in Table 23 resulted in a chi square 0.286 with 2 degrees of freedom, a value which was not statistically significant. Again it was possible to perform a similar test for each of the three teaching levels. In the case of the Elementary group the chi square was 4.318 with

TABLE 24

SERVICE ORIENTATION BY TIME SPENT ON THE
PRESENT JOB FOR EACH TEACHING LEVEL

Service Orientation	Time	
	4 years or Under	5 years or Over
<u>Elementary</u>		
High	29.0	54.1
Medium	41.9	27.0
Low	29.0	18.9
<u>Junior High</u>		
High	33.3	15.8
Medium	37.0	44.7
Low	29.6	39.5
<u>Senior High</u>		
High	37.8	41.8
Medium	18.9	19.6
Low	43.2	39.1

2 degrees of freedom, a result which is only significant at approximately the .10 level of probability. The trend indicated by these results is that service orientation scores tend to be higher with more time spent at the job. The inference here might be that there is a tendency for only career oriented teachers staying in the System at this level. The chi squares for the Junior and Senior High groups were 2.763 and 1.510 respectively - both being statistically insignificant. It is interesting to note, however, that the levels of significance decrease as one goes from Elementary to Junior High to Senior High possibly indicating that some other variable plays a more significant

role than the one presently under discussion. It would be informative to determine from future research whether this is purely a function of size of staff or if in fact there are more procedures to be followed in the higher teaching levels.

Findings for data from question 5 - "Total number of years of experience in your present location (this city - include this year)" were also statistically insignificant for the total population studies as shown in Table 25 below. A chi square test resulted in a value of 6.941 with 4 degrees of freedom, which falls between the .20 and .10 level

TABLE 25

SERVICE ORIENTATION BY TIME SPENT IN THE
EDMONTON SYSTEM FOR THE TOTAL GROUP

Service Orientation	Time		
	3 years or under	4 to 10 years	11 years or more
High	33.0	46.0	38.8
Medium	27.7	31.7	33.9
Low	39.3	22.3	37.3

of probability. Table 26 indicates that there is no apparent significance, with this variable, when the individual teaching levels are examined.

Education. A further set of questions looked into the relationship between educational attainment and service orientation. Using all 216 subjects, the data on the number

of years of academic and professional preparation beyond high school is found in Table 27. A chi square calculated for this data revealed a figure of 7.018 with 2 degrees of freedom. This was significant at between the .05 and .02

TABLE 26

SERVICE ORIENTATION BY TIME SPENT IN THE
EDMONTON SYSTEM FOR EACH TEACHING LEVEL

Service Orientation	Time		
	3 years or under	4 to 10 years	11 years or more
<u>Elementary</u>			
High	33.3	52.2	50.0
Medium	33.3	34.8	33.3
Low	33.3	13.0	16.7
<u>Junior High</u>			
High	29.6	26.0	10.5
Medium	37.0	47.4	42.1
Low	33.4	26.3	47.4
<u>Senior High</u>			
High	35.3	57.1	32.1
Medium	14.7	14.3	28.6
Low	50.0	28.6	39.3

levels of probability. It should be noted that, since the contingency tables for the individual teaching levels revealed a number of zero values, even after collapsing the number of variables to a minimum, the results remain questionable. This occurred because in the Senior High sample there were no respondents who had fewer than 3 years of preparation beyond high school. Taken individually, the chi square tests indicate no significant relation-

ship existing. A trend, however, may be indicated in the Elementary sample where a chi square of 3.962 with 2 degrees

TABLE 27

SERVICE ORIENTATION BY YEARS OF PREPARATION
BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL FOR THE TOTAL GROUP

Service Orientation	Years of Preparation	
	2 or less	more than 2
High	18.2	37.6
Medium	54.5	27.8
Low	27.3	34.5

TABLE 28

SERVICE ORIENTATION BY YEARS OF PREPARATION
BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL FOR EACH TEACHING LEVEL

Service Orientation	Years of Preparation	
	2 or less	2 or more
<u>Elementary</u>		
High	25.0	48.1
Medium	50.0	28.8
Low	25.0	23.1
<u>Junior High</u>		
High	0.0	25.4
Medium	66.7	39.0
Low	33.3	35.6
<u>Senior High</u>		
High	0.0	39.8
Medium	0.0	19.3
Low	0.0	41.0

of freedom was revealed. This indicates a level of probability of between .20 and .10.

Father's Occupation. An attempt was made to determine whether or not there was any significant relationship between the respondents' opinions on service orientation and their fathers' occupation. Table 29 indicates that no statistical significance exists in that a chi square value of 4.665 with 4 degrees of freedom was obtained.

TABLE 29
SERVICE ORIENTATION BY FATHERS OCCUPATION
FOR THE WHOLE GROUP

Service Orientation	Fathers Occupation	
	Same	Different
High	33.3	36.0
Medium	46.7	29.0
Low	20.0	35.0

Population Size of Hometown. Again, taking all the teachers in the three teaching levels, the data on the size of the respondents hometown is shown in Table 30 below. The chi square calculated for this data revealed a figure of 3.478 with 4 degrees of freedom. This finding is not statistically significant since it falls between the .50 and .30 level of probability. The data for the individual groups is tabulated in Table 31. The chi square values for these groups are 0.344, 9.181 and 2.057 respectively, indicating that only the Junior High group shows any statistical significance - at approximately the .05 level or probability. This conclusion, however, is not justified in that one of the

TABLE 30
SERVICE ORIENTATION BY POPULATION SIZE
OF HOMETOWN FOR THE WHOLE GROUP

Service Orientation	Population Size		
	Under 2,500	2,500-50,000	Over 50,000
High	34.7	36.8	36.3
Medium	26.5	39.5	31.3
Low	38.8	23.7	32.5

TABLE 31
SERVICE ORIENTATION BY POPULATION SIZE OF
HOMETOWN FOR EACH TEACHING LEVEL

Service Orientation	Population Size		
	Under 2,500	2,500-50,000	Over 50,000
<u>Elementary</u>			
High	44.1	40.0	42.1
Medium	35.3	33.3	31.6
Low	20.6	26.7	26.3
<u>Junior High</u>			
High	26.7	22.2	19.2
Medium	26.7	77.8	46.2
Low	46.7	0.0	34.6
<u>Senior High</u>			
High	32.4	42.9	45.7
Medium	17.6	21.4	20.0
Low	50.0	35.7	34.3

cells in the contingency table had a zero value thus giving unreliable results.

What then can one conclude about these demographic characteristics and opinions on service orientation? It

seems that there is no statistically significant relationship between any of these factors and service orientation thus we are not given any insight as to what a respondent's view on administrative policy ought to be. Perhaps then these factors have to be controlled with other variables and/or the concept of service orientation is only related to certain other basic matters such as: personality types; motivation; levels of satisfaction on promotional policies; and, job climate - these all remain as areas for future research. In addition, we may suggest other areas that may be looked at, for example, the level of informality, the range of activity and whether or not one deals with other employees in carrying out ones duties. These are some of the variables dealt with by both Stub and Shihadeh in other settings. Let us now consider Stubs approach and his hypotheses in the light of the School System data.

Other Influences and the Stub Hypotheses

The question now is as follows: Do certain factors in the formal structure of the Edmonton Public School System point to a service orientation type of behavior among respondents, in addition to or in place of a procedural orientation? The relevant portions of the Stub hypotheses will be used here as a vehicle for analysis.¹

¹As noted previously on page 35 only 3 out of the original 10 hypotheses were retained for the purposes of this study.

Hypothesis I. This hypothesis states that a service orientation is positively related to an informal or egalitarian atmosphere between subordinates and superiors. This constitutes an attempt to determine whether or not there was a relationship between service orientation and the existence of an informal atmosphere between the status levels in the schools studied. A school possessing an informal atmosphere would be one in which the personal relationships of superior and subordinate do not emphasize formal status differences, nor does the supervisor exercise "tight" supervision. In such a school, superior and subordinate may eat or have coffee together, and wherein the suggestions of a subordinate may be freely given and received by a superior. In exercising authority in such a school, the superiors encourage a participatory type of relationship rather than a strict adherence to the "obey" orders type of relations.

In testing this hypothesis, a chi square test was computed using scores from the: (a) service orientation index, and (b) the index of informality.² Thus the test was made with two sets of scores with each set being grouped into high, medium and low categories. The results are tabulated in Table 32 below and revealed a chi square

²This index, again following Stub, originally included a set of 8 questions - 7 of which were used in this study. Of these 7 items, 1 was eliminated when the item analysis, previously described, was carried out. The scoring was simply: 1 point for the lowest level of informality, 2 points for a middle or neutral attitude, and 3 points for a response denoting high informality.

of 2.558 with 4 degrees of freedom. A chi square as low as this indicates that a distribution such as this could occur by chance approximately 65 times out of a 100 - assuming an infinite sample. Thus, our data fails to support the hypothesis that service orientation and informality are positively related.

TABLE 32
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES BY SERVICE
ORIENTATION AND INFORMALITY FOR THE
TOTAL GROUP

Service Orientation	Informality					
	High		Medium		Low	
	(17.85-19) cases	%	(15.5-17.84) cases	%	(7-15.4) cases	%
High (30.5-36)	34	36.6	18	31.6	25	37.9
Medium (27.5-30.4)	27	29.0	22	28.6	17	25.8
Low (12-27.4)	32	34.4	17	29.8	24	36.4

A separate analysis was then made for each of the three teaching levels, again, the chi square values indicated no significant relationship. While Table 33 shows some differences in response between the three teaching levels, these differences appear to be of little relevance however, as far as the hypothesis is concerned. The respective chi square values for the three teaching levels, beginning with the Elementary sample, are 5.844, 3.281 and 1.860.

Since other factors such as age, educational level,

TABLE 33
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES BY SERVICE
ORIENTATION AND INFORMALITY FOR EACH
TEACHING LEVEL

Service Orientation	Informality					
	<u>High</u>		<u>Medium</u>		<u>Low</u>	
	cases	%	cases	%	cases	%
<u>Elementary</u>						
High	12	40.0	9	42.9	8	47.1
Medium	7	23.3	9	42.9	7	41.2
Low	<u>11</u>	36.7	<u>3</u>	14.3	<u>2</u>	11.8
TOTALS	30		21		17	
<u>Junior High</u>						
High	6	20.7	3	18.8	6	30.0
Medium	14	48.3	8	50.0	5	25.0
Low	<u>9</u>	31.0	<u>5</u>	31.3	<u>9</u>	45.0
TOTALS	29		16		20	
<u>Senior High</u>						
High	16	47.1	6	30.0	11	37.9
Medium	6	17.6	5	25.0	5	17.2
Low	<u>12</u>	35.3	<u>9</u>	45.0	<u>13</u>	44.9
TOTALS	34		20		29	

length of time spent in one's job may effect the pattern of responses on informality, separate analysis was done for each of them. Chi square tests, however, indicated no statistical significance whatsoever.

Hypothesis II. This hypothesis states that those employees who view their activites as covering a relatively wide range will tend to be more service oriented than those who consider their functions as routinized and invariant. A positive relationship between the amount of choice one has

in handling one's duties and service orientation rests on the assumption that there is a lessening in the importance of specific rules and regulations as the amount of choice increases.

The data used in testing this hypothesis was based on the responses to questions 13 and 14. The results are presented in Tables 34, 35, 36 and 37. A chi square value of 3.489 with 4 degrees of freedom, obtained for Table 34,

TABLE 34

SERVICE ORIENTATION BY RESPONDENTS' RANGE
OF CHOICE IN JOB PERFORMANCE FOR THE
WHOLE GROUP

Service Orientation	Range of Choice					
	<u>High</u>		<u>Medium</u>		<u>Low</u>	
	cases	%	cases	%	cases	%
High	41	36.9	31	35.6	5	29.4
Medium	34	30.6	29	33.3	3	17.6
Low	36	32.4	27	31.0	9	52.9

is not statistically significant. However, when the individual teaching levels were tested, we note that both the Elementary and Junior High samples have chi square values that fall between the .20 and .10 levels of probability. While these results fall below the minimum level of acceptability, the data points in the direction of the prediction. In the Senior High sample, the chi square of 4.216 only falls between the .50 and .30 levels of probability.

To check the validity of responses, question 14 establishes the presence or absence of a manual of rules and the extent to which it is deemed important as a guide in the performance of one's duties. It is suggested that the degree of reliance on a manual of rules may assist in determining the range of choice in job performance. The responses to this question are shown in Table 36 below.

TABLE 35

SERVICE ORIENTATION BY RESPONDENTS' RANGE OF
CHOICE IN JOB PERFORMANCE BY TEACHING
LEVEL

Service Orientation	Range of Choice					
	<u>High</u>		<u>Medium</u>		<u>Low</u>	
	cases	%	cases	%	cases	%
<u>Elementary</u>						
High	15	40.5	13	46.4	1	33.3
Medium	11	29.7	12	42.9	---	---
Low	11	29.7	3	10.7	2	66.7
<u>Junior High</u>						
High	10	32.3	3	10.3	2	40.0
Medium	13	41.9	12	41.4	2	40.0
Low	8	25.8	14	48.3	1	20.0
<u>Senior High</u>						
High	16	37.2	15	50.0	2	22.2
Medium	10	23.3	5	16.7	1	11.1
Low	17	39.5	10	33.3	6	66.7

A chi square value of 11.878 with 4 degrees of freedom indicates a strong relationship between the two variables and falls between the .02 and .01 levels of probability.

TABLE 36

SERVICE ORIENTATION BY DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE
OF A MANUAL OF RULES FOR THE WHOLE GROUP

Service Orientation	Range of Importance					
	<u>High</u>		<u>Medium</u>		<u>Low</u>	
	cases	%	cases	%	cases	%
High	25	52.1	23	26.4	6	24.0
Medium	9	18.8	32	36.8	7	28.0
Low	<u>14</u>	29.2	<u>32</u>	36.8	<u>12</u>	48.0
TOTALS	48		87		25	

NOTE: 55 responses, which stated that there was no manual of rules, were excluded.

The results appear to show that those who consider the manual of rules and procedures as being "high" in importance, tended to have a high service orientation rating and vis versa. The results, therefore, do not support the hypothesis that those who place the least importance on a manual of rules will have the higher service orientation scores. These results lead to some interesting speculation as to exactly how the question was interpreted and what significance may be attached to it. One of the more interesting possibilities is that those with a high service orientation only claim recognition of the manual of rules as being important with those who are procedurally oriented claiming the opposite. In other words, this question may not be giving us the true picture of the respondent's attitude

but rather the obverse of it, i.e., the exact opposite. Even when one takes the results at face value, it still does not imply that those who claim to place a high degree of importance on a manual of rules are actually placing heavy reliance upon it in practice - they may be simply paying "lip service" to it. This points out the differences that may exist between actual teaching practices and administrative controls and may be an important area for further study. For example, are there factors other than a professional orientation which effects a tendency to circumvent rules?

Another observation here is that so many respondents do not perceive that a manual of rules even exists. Of the total sample, one quarter denies its very existence - with the Senior High group leading the others in that they comprise slightly over 50% of those who answered negatively. The question that then remains is really how important can the manual of rules be when so many do not even perceive its' very existence?

In applying the chi square tests to each of the three teaching levels, we note that the strength of the relationship differs markedly between the groups. In the Elementary sample, the chi square was 8.625 which falls between the .10 and .05 levels of probability while that for the Senior High group was only 2.742 indicating that the results obtained had between a 50% and 70% likelihood

of occurring by chance. The Junior High sample had a chi

TABLE 37

SERVICE ORIENTATION BY DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE
OF A MANUAL OF RULES FOR EACH OF THE
TEACHING LEVELS

Service Orientation	Range of Importance					
	<u>High</u>		<u>Medium</u>		<u>Low</u>	
	cases	%	cases	%	cases	%
<u>Elementary</u>						
High	10	71.4	9	34.6	3	21.4
Medium	2	14.8	10	38.5	5	35.7
Low	<u>2</u>	14.3	<u>7</u>	26.9	<u>6</u>	42.9
TOTALS	14		26		14	
<u>Junior High</u>						
High	6	37.5	3	10.7	1	12.5
Medium	5	31.3	15	53.6	2	25.0
Low	<u>5</u>	31.3	<u>10</u>	35.7	<u>5</u>	62.5
TOTALS	16		28		8	
<u>Senior High</u>						
High	9	50.0	11	33.3	2	66.7
Medium	2	11.1	7	21.2	0	0
Low	<u>7</u>	38.9	<u>15</u>	45.5	<u>1</u>	33.3
TOTALS	18		33		3	

square value of 7.363 and thus falls between the .20 and .10 levels of probability. Thus, when taken singly, the Elementary group shows the strongest relationship between the two variables being examined.

Hypothesis III. This states that employees whose jobs involve the necessity of dealing with other employees, aside from the immediate supervisor, will tend to be more service oriented than those who do not.

Testing this hypothesis involved the data based on the responses to items 11 and 12 on the questionnaire. A chi square test of the results from question 11, for the total group, reveals that there is a strong relationship between service orientation and whether or not an employee deals with persons other than his immediate supervisor. The following table resulted in a chi square of 6.130 with 2 degrees of freedom which is statistically significant at the .025 level of probability. The results of this same

TABLE 38

RESPONDENTS' ALTERNATIVES IN DEALING WITH OTHER
EMPLOYEES BY SERVICE ORIENTATION FOR
THE WHOLE GROUP

Alternatives	Service Orientation					
	<u>High</u>		<u>Medium</u>		<u>Low</u>	
	cases	%	cases	%	cases	%
YES	69	36.5	62	32.8	58	30.7
NO	8	30.8	4	15.4	14	53.8

test for each of the three teaching levels is tabulated below in Table 39. The most significant results came from the Senior High group where a chi square value of 9.267 with 2 degrees of freedom was obtained indicating a very high level of reliability - over 99%. The chi square obtained for the Junior High and Elementary groups were 4.167 and 2.485 respectively. Neither of these values indicate a statistically significant relationship existing

between the variables. This finding however, may suggest that further study be made of the Senior High groups to determine more precisely what employee contact takes place

TABLE 39

RESPONDENTS' ALTERNATIVES IN DEALING WITH OTHER
EMPLOYEES BY SERVICE ORIENTATION FOR
EACH OF THE TEACHING LEVELS

Alternatives	Service Orientation					
	<u>High</u>		<u>Medium</u>		<u>Low</u>	
	cases	%	cases	%	cases	%
<u>Elementary</u>						
YES	26	40.6	23	35.9	15	23.4
NO	3	75.0	-	-	1	25.0
<u>Junior High</u>						
YES	12	20.0	26	43.3	22	36.7
NO	3	60.0	1	20.0	1	20.0
<u>Senior High</u>						
YES	31	47.7	13	20.0	21	32.3
NO	2	11.8	3	17.6	12	70.6

and why is it beneficial for service orientation.

A chi square test of the results from question 12 for the total sample reveals that there is no apparent relationship between service orientation and frequency of contact with other employees. A value of 0.352 with 2 degrees of freedom indicates that there is between a 80% and 90% likelihood that the results may have occurred purely by chance. A similar test of the data was made for each of the teaching levels with the results shown in

Table 41. Again, the chi square values obtained indicated that no relationship existed between the variables tested.

TABLE 40

RESPONDENTS' FREQUENCY OF CONTACT WITH
OTHER EMPLOYEES BY SERVICE ORIENTATION
FOR THE WHOLE GROUP

Time Spent	Service Orientation					
	High		Medium		Low	
	cases	%	cases	%	cases	%
Half the time or less	42	36.2	35	30.2	39	33.6
More than half the time	29	34.1	29	34.1	27	31.8

TABLE 41

RESPONDENTS' FREQUENCY OF CONTACT WITH OTHER
EMPLOYEES BY SERVICE ORIENTATION FOR EACH OF
THE TEACHING LEVELS

Time Spent	Service Orientation					
	High		Medium		Low	
	cases	%	cases	%	cases	%
<u>Elementary</u>						
Half or less	17	47.2	10	27.8	9	25.0
More than half	10	33.3	13	43.3	7	23.3
<u>Junior High</u>						
Half or less	9	23.1	16	41.0	14	35.9
More than half	3	13.6	10	45.5	9	40.9
<u>Senior High</u>						
Half or less	16	39.0	9	22.0	16	39.0
More than half	16	48.5	6	18.2	11	33.3

In summary, it may be stated that our test of this hypothesis indicates that there is a positive relationship between service orientation and working directly with other employees although the frequency of contact does not seem to have any appreciable effect.

PART IV
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study was undertaken to examine and compare the "work orientation" of teachers in the three teaching levels of the Edmonton Public School System. As such it set out to examine the relative degrees of bureaucratization of these levels and to test the relationship between work orientation and other variables.

In addition, this study also compares the findings from this organization with findings of previous researchers in the field. Specific reference is given to the works of Richard Holger Stub, whose questionnaire and hypothesis were utilized as a basis for the study, as well as to Emile S. Shihadeh who utilized Stubs' format in a different setting. The approach taken here differs from the previous researchers in that a relatively homogeneous group, in terms of function, was examined and compared on the basis of an arbitrary internal division. On the other hand, Stub and Shihadeh both utilized data from two different government agencies - both of which were very different in function and in type of people employed. As noted by Stub, this approach was employed in order to give "an ample possibility for negative or null results to reveal them-

selves and hence avoid the hazard of confirming false hypotheses."¹ The major limitation of the approach taken in this study is the relatively small size of the group utilized in the sample. It may be noted however, as was shown previously, that the results obtained give ample indication of being representative of the total system.

The objectives of this final chapter then are to summarize the findings and also to provide some suggestions as to possible future research topics. It is to be noted again that primary interest is focused on comparing and describing individuals within what is considered to be a relatively homogeneous group. A secondary interest revolves about an analysis of the results in terms of causal relationships as well as with some comparisons to earlier studies. This will be followed by some suggestions for further research.

As previously noted this study derived the service-orientation "index" and the hypotheses relating to it from the work of Stub in his empirical study of bureaucratic organization. Stub and a subsequent researcher, Shihadeh, both concluded that bureaucratic organization actually implies conflicting patterns rather than one dominant pattern. In other words, a bureaucratic mode of organization which emphasizes the system of organization and the subordination of the individual to it and where it is

¹Stub, op. cit., p. 93

implied that the relation of any individual to his particular task is always governed by a set of standardized rules and procedures, does not per se result in the popular stereotype of proceduralism, impersonality and other pathological elements. This study strongly supports this view from the results obtained.

Furthermore, one may state that there was, in fact, a preponderance of those sampled who exhibited a service orientation as opposed to a procedural orientation. If one views the scores as falling on a continuum, then of the 216 teachers sampled, 143 or two thirds were to be found in the upper third of the possible attainable score thus signifying a service orientation. On the other hand, there was only one individual found to possess a procedural orientation, that is, being in the lower third of the total possible score. The remaining third of the sample, 72 individuals, were dispersed in the mid range between the service and procedural orientation poles. Expressed another way, one could say that in this bureaucratic organization 99.5% of the population sampled did not exhibit a procedural orientation. On a comparative basis, within this sample, one finds that the Elementary group contains the greatest percentage of service oriented teachers, followed in order by the Junior High and Senior High samples.

When an attempt was made to account for this situation by analyzing data in terms of other factors, there

was no evidence of an association between service orientation and sex, age, fathers occupation, or the size of community in which they spent their childhood. A cross-tabulation, however, between service orientation by education did reveal some degree of association. In the case of the education variable, the results appear to indicate that for teachers as a whole, those with more years of preparation beyond high school have a higher service orientation score. When individual groups are examined this same conclusion does not hold.

In comparing the results obtained in this study with those of Stub and Shihadeh, we find extremely marked differences with regard to the incidence of service orientation vis à vis a procedural orientation. The teachers in the Edmonton Public School System had slightly more than three times as high a percentage in the "high" range of scores than did either Stub or Shihadeh - 66.2% as compared to 21.4% and 20.0% respectively. The differences in the "low" range, indicating a procedural orientation, were even more marked, 0.5% as opposed to 20.4% in Stubs' sample and 45.0% in Shihadehs'. The question then remains as to how the wide disparity in the distribution of service and procedural orientations as between the three studies may be explained.

In his book, The Dynamics Of Bureaucracy, Blau views group cohesiveness as an important factor in promoting group action, which in terms of this study, would imply a service orientation on the part of the group members. Blau considered group cohesion as a major variable in promoting change through the adoption of unofficial practices which aided in meeting organizational needs.² It should be noted, however, that Blau did not assume that the cohesive group would ipso facto result in norms which would prevent an emphasis on procedures. He states that:

Social cohesion enables the members of a group to institute adjustments that further their interest. These adjustments will, however, not advance the objectives of the organization, if operating employees feel that their interest conflicts with that of management.³

Blau further points out that this is typically what happens in private industry where restriction of output takes place among factory workers. This is dysfunctional for operations and occurs because workers view it to be in their best economic interest to do so. Blau felt that, "the dominant concern of employees with their jobs and income may submerge a common professional interest in effective performance."⁴ In effect, Blau found that the bureaucratic organization, which he studied, provided the job security

²Blau, op. cit., pp. 210 - 211

³Ibid., p. 212

⁴Ibid., p. 212

which permitted employees to become and remain primarily interested in their professional responsibilities.

Thus, it is suggested that the differences obtained in the distribution of service orientation between the present study and those of Stub and Shihadeh may be due to differences in the relative degrees of cohesiveness between the groups under study. While all the groups possessed job and income security, they may not have possessed the same degree of "professionalism" and this therefore effected the amount of service orientation. This conclusion is, at least, partially borne out by the fact that there was a very marked and consistent degree of similarity between the three teaching levels on responses to the items of the service orientation index: (a) the importance of decision rules; (b) the importance of basing selection for employment on technical skill rather than on a desire to be of service to the community (c) the importance of a rigid authority structure; and with a slightly lesser degree to (d) the importance of files and records and (e) the importance of the status of the individual in relation to the importance of the organization. The similarities reflected in the responses to these items of the orientation index may be logically related to group cohesiveness. The opposite was found to be true in the group sampled by Stub, i.e., there were consistent differences of responses to these same items as between the two agencies studied.

Shihadehs' study, on the other hand, exhibited fairly strong similarities in responding to these same items and therefore one could expect that this would also indicate a high degree of cohesiveness and service orientation. This however was not the case but it is suggested that some other factor may be responsible for the group cohesiveness illustrated in that situation. Shihadeh refers to the possibility that:

In a setting such as that of Jordan ... the responses might be directed to what the respondents felt their supervisors might prefer -- that is, toward a Western view of service ... the possibility of such (subversion) cannot be entirely discounted ...⁵

In other words, the motives for group cohesiveness are probably more significant than the fact of whether or not it even exists. It is therefore suggested, that in the case of the teachers, the motivation is strongly in the direction of attaining professional goals, hence the higher incidence of service orientation.

A further explanation on this latter point might rest on the teachers relative freedom in the handling of their duties. Teachers in today's schools typically are accorded a great deal of autonomy in their classrooms, an autonomy protected by their physical insulation from observability and fortified by strong professional norms. Hence, they appear to view their individual school hierarchy as being a separate entity and apart from the total administra-

⁵Shihadeh, op. cit., pp. 198-199

tive structure. This is the case even though teachers have traditionally lacked power with respect to the formulation of school policies. They have been subordinated to administrators, school boards and vocal citizens and remain largely unsympathetic (even though organized) for collective action on their own behalf. Thus, even though teachers have frequently been prey to arbitrary manipulations of their conditions of work, they, as a professional group of employees, are depended upon to carry on the primary purposes of the organization. On the other hand, another type of professional organization, referred to by Scott as "heteronomous,"⁶ the professional employees are subordinated to the administration hierarchy and the amount of autonomy granted this type of employee is relatively small. Perhaps it is primarily this difference which accounts for the very significant incidence of service orientation that teachers exhibit in comparison with employees in other bureaucratic settings.

Furthermore, an analysis of the Stub hypotheses reveals a confirmation of previous findings on two out of the three propositions with sharp disagreement on the remaining one. No significant relationship was found to exist between service orientation and either of office informality or nature of work done, however, this study did

⁶W. Richard Scott, "Reactions to Supervision in Heteronomous Professional Organization." Administrative Science Quarterly, Volume 10 (June 1965), pp. 65-81.

find that there was a statistically significant relationship between service orientation and the necessity of dealing with other employees. The teachers of the Edmonton Public School System who exhibited a higher service orientation also viewed working with other teachers as being quite necessary. Again, it is suggested that the explanation might lie in the relatively high degree of professionalism amongst teachers as a group. The results of this project also indicated no significant relationships existing between the informality index and other factors such as age, sex education, etc..

Research Implications

Until now, in this section, we have mainly limited ourselves to a comparative discussion of the findings and by the nature of the results obtained this has meant, primarily an attempt at explaining differences. In viewing the conclusions that have been drawn on the basis of these noted differences, it seems pertinent at this point to sound several notes of caution before making suggestions for further research.

First, it might be mentioned that we may be getting a kind of response which is contaminated with other factors. For example, it is probably true that individuals who are trained and subsequently hired as professional workers, of whatever kind, are prone to view their jobs as variable instead of routine; or working with other employees as

being a necessity. That is, the role of being a "professional" person is such that one expects not to do routine work or to carry on ones' duties without finding it necessary to deal with other professionals, even though, in fact, the job may be routine and they may work without consulting or co-operating with other employees. The opposite would also hold for the persons who views himself as, and is hired as a clerical employee. Doing routine work is one of the expectations that likely goes along with being a clerical employee. Thus, upon being interviewed, a person would probably be apt to answer in terms of the expectations of his occupational role. It would appear, however, that the possibility of this kind of error in the data does not alter our conclusions as to the differences in question. If anything, it only points out the need for a more psychological type of explanation.

The present research design was utilized to compare degrees of service orientation within one operational level of a bureaucratic organization and to test some of the factors which were thought to relate to service orientation. The fact that psychological factors were ignored does not imply that they may not be important - or possibly most important - they just were not utilized. In his important discussion of bureaucratic structure and personality Robert Merton asked questions such as:

To what extent are particular personality types selected and modified by the various bureaucracies

(private enterprize, public service, the quasi-legal political machine, religious order)? Inasmuch as ascendancy and submission are held to be traits of personality, despite their variability in different stimulus-situations, do bureaucracies select personalities of particularly submissive or ascendent tendencies? Do various systems of recruitment (e.g. patronage, open competition involving specialized knowledge or "general mental capacity, "practical experience) select different personality types? Does promotion through seniority lessen competitive anxieties and enhance administrative efficiency?⁷

A detailed examination of any of these questions would be most helpful in explaining our observed differences in service orientation.

Secondly, there is the basic question of whether the items on the questionnaire were, in fact, "straight-forward" or not. It is always possible, of course, that various questions may have been misinterpreted thus throwing doubt on the trustworthiness of certain of the data. The only direct evidence of this occurring was in connection with the questions relating to length of time at present job and present location (items 4 and 5).

Furthermore, in connection with the items that go to make up the service orientation index, it would appear that more sensitive indicators of orientation need to be developed. This seems to be particularly true for the relatively homogeneous group studied where most of the

⁷Merton, "Bureaucratic Structure and Personality", op. cit., p. 371.

respondents were grouped at the high end of the scale. In this instance, it would have been most helpful to have had some means of differentiating between all those who were at the top of the scale.

A further note of caution is warranted in the cases for which our results were either negative or inconclusive. One could, of course, reiterate the previously mentioned imperfections in the questions employed plus the possibility of false responses in explaining our results. This kind of conclusion would, however, not be fully in line with the assumption that a given piece of research should yield its maximum in terms of utility. The problem then resolves itself into equating theoretical significance with statistical significance. One of the major difficulties that arises here is, that in using tests involving probability theory, how does one assess non-significant results? It is entirely possible that this type of result may sometimes be as theoretically significant as those that attain generally accepted levels of statistical significance. This is, of course, not meant to imply that some of the failures of prediction could not have resulted from either faulty measuring devices or a small number of cases.

APPENDIX 1
THE QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
FACULTY OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
SYSTEMS ANALYSIS PROJECT

You are asked to fill out the following pages in order to provide important information for a research study. The purpose is to help understand some of the human problems involved in large complex organizations.

YOUR ANSWERS WILL BE KEPT COMPLETELY CONFIDENTIAL -- THEY WILL NOT BE SEEN BY ANYONE CONNECTED IN ANY WAY WITH YOUR EMPLOYMENT OR BY ANY OF YOUR ACQUAINTANCES. IN ORDER TO GUARANTEE THE ABSOLUTE ANONYMITY OF RESPONDENTS THE FOLLOWING MEASURES WILL BE EMPLOYED. YOU ARE ASKED NOT TO PLACE YOUR NAME ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE; THE ANALYSIS OF DATA WILL BE DONE THROUGH THE USE OF A COMPUTER; UPON THE CONCLUSION OF THIS ANALYSIS, INFORMATION CONCERNING THE PLACES OF ORIGIN OF THE DATA WILL BE DESTROYED SO THAT WHILE IT WILL BE KNOWN FROM WHAT CITY THE INFORMATION COMES THERE WILL BE NO POSSIBLE WAY IN WHICH IT CAN BE TRACED BACK.

IN VIEW OF THIS GUARANTEED ANONYMITY YOU ARE REQUESTED TO ANSWER ALL QUESTION AS FRANKLY AS POSSIBLE -- COMPLETE INFORMATION IS ESSENTIAL TO THE SUCCESS OF THIS STUDY. WE ALSO REQUEST THAT YOU DO NOT DISCUSS THE CONTENT OF THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WITH ANY OF YOUR FRIENDS UNTIL AFTER THE SURVEY OF YOUR ORGANIZATION IS FINISHED.

THANK YOU.

1. What is your job title? _____
2. Male _____ Female _____
3. What is your age? (last birthday)
_____ 24 years or under. _____ 45-54 years.
_____ 25-34 years. _____ 55-64 years.
_____ 35-44 years. _____ 65 years or over.

4. Total number of years of experience in your present job (include this year).
____ 1 year; ____ 2 years; ____ 3-4 years; ____ 5-9 years;
____ 10-19 years; ____ 20 years or more.
5. Total number of years of experience in your present location (this city - include this year).
____ 1 year; ____ 2 years; ____ 3 years; ____ 4-5 years;
____ 6-10 years; ____ 11 years or more.
6. What is the extent of your total academic and professional preparation beyond high school?
____ 1 year or less in a university, Teacher' College,
or Normal School.
____ 2 complete years in a university and/or Teachers'
College.
____ 3 complete years in a university and/or Teachers'
College.
____ 4 complete years in a university and/or Teachers'
College.
____ 5 complete years in a university and/or Teachers'
College.
____ 6 or more complete years in a university or
Teachers' College.
7. What is the highest university degree you hold? Check
one.
____ No degree.
____ B.A.
____ B.Sc.
____ B.Ed.
____ Two or more Bachelor degrees.
____ M.A.
____ M.Sc.
____ Other (please write in) _____
8. Special certificate or training _____
9. What is or was your fathers main occupation?
____ The same as yours.
____ Different.

10. Where did you live during most of your childhood?

- ☐ On a farm.
- ☐ In a village under 2,500.
- ☐ In a town 2,500-5,000.
- ☐ In a town 5,000-15,000.
- ☐ In a city 15,000-50,000.
- ☐ In a city 50,000-100,000.
- ☐ In a city over 100,000.

11. In performing your job do you find it necessary to work directly with other employees besides the supervisor in fulfilling your duties?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

12. How frequently is it necessary for you to contact these other persons in performing your job?

- ☐ Most of the time.
- ☐ A good deal of the time.
- ☐ About half the time.
- ☐ Occasionally.
- ☐ Seldom.

13. In the performance of your job, to what extent can you decide by yourself how you handle your duties?

You have:

- ☐ A great deal of choice.
- ☐ A considerable amount of choice.
- ☐ Some choice.
- ☐ A small degree of choice.
- ☐ Little or no choice.

14. Do you have a manual of rules and procedures for your job?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

If you have a manual of rules and procedures, how important is it for your job?

- ☐ Extremely important.
- ☐ Of little importance.
- ☐ Very important.
- ☐ Of no importance.
- ☐ Of some importance.

15. How closely does your immediate supervisor supervise you and other people in your unit or section?

____ Very closely -- one feels as though he watches everything you do.

____ Moderately close -- he knows pretty much what are doing all the time, but otherwise does not watch too much.

____ Very little -- he tells you in a general way what you are supposed to do, but other than that he does not say much nor does he come around.

16. In general, to what extent are the duties of your job regulated by rules and procedures?

____ There are specific rules regulating almost all the duties performed.

____ There are some rules, but also some free choice in the way the duties of this job can be handled.

____ There are few specific rules, allowing a wide range of choice in the way the job may be handled.

17. How often does your immediate supervisor eat lunch with various people in your unit or section?

____ Quite often -- several times a week.

____ Occasionally -- once every week or two.

____ Almost never or not at all.

18. How often does your immediate supervisor go to coffee with the various people in your unit or section?

____ Quite often -- several times a week.

____ Occasionally -- once every week or two.

____ Almost never or not at all.

19. In your opinion, how does your immediate supervisor exercise his authority over those he supervises?

____ He treats them as inferiors who must obey orders.

____ Alternates between treating them as inferiors and near equals.

____ Treats them as near equals and exercises his authority informally.

20. In your opinion, how does your immediate supervisor react to having his subordinates give him ideas and suggestions on how things ought to be done?

☐ Seems to welcome usable suggestions.

☐ Neither encourages or discourages suggestions.

☐ Seems to discourage suggestions.

21. If you had an idea for improving the operations of this unit or section, to what persons in authority would you feel free to suggest it?

☐ To whatever official could put the idea into practice.

☐ To your immediate supervisor.

☐ Simply talk it over with your associates.

☐ Feel unfree to suggest it to anyone.

In this next section - SPECIFY YOUR OWN IDEA OF WHAT THE POLICY OF YOUR WORKPLACE OUGHT TO BE REGARDING THE STATEMENTS OF ADMINISTRATIVE POLICY WHICH FOLLOW:

22. William E. Sexton, writing in the magazine, Office Executive claimed that about 40% of all records and files now maintained "might just as well fuel a bonfire".

Agree ☐

Disagree ☐

? ☐

23. If an employee has an idea for improving procedures he should be able to go directly to the person in authority to institute his idea.

Agree ☐

Disagree ☐

? ☐

24. A precise and complete set of rules must govern all decisions to ensure an efficient organization.

Agree ☐

Disagree ☐

? ☐

25. The individual employee and the work he does should be considered of secondary importance to the system of organization.

Agree _____

Disagree _____

? _____

26. The importance of maintaining a complete set of records and files must be emphasized.

Agree _____

Disagree _____

? _____

27. The duties of the individual should be loosely defined in order that he may be allowed to exercise his own particular skills to a higher degree.

Agree _____

Disagree _____

? _____

28. Persons hired for work should be selected on the basis of their desire to be of service to the community rather than on the basis of administrative or technical skill.

Agree _____

Disagree _____

? _____

29. In your organization, a person must be allowed to ignore the chain of command and regular channels of communication when he considers it to be in the best interests of all concerned.

Agree _____

Disagree _____

? _____

30. In an organization such as yours it is impossible to have rules that precisely determine the kind of decisions that have to be made.

Agree _____

Disagree _____

? _____

31. In an organization of this kind each individual should be thought of as a small unit in a large and complex whole.

Agree _____

Disagree _____

? _____

32. Selection of persons for work in your job should be strictly on the basis of skill.

Agree _____

Disagree _____

? _____

33. Ideally every job in an organization such as this should be set up so that very little skill would be required and all the individual employee would need to do is follow the proper rules of procedure.

Agree _____

Disagree _____

? _____

34. In an organization such as yours, the emphasis should be on encouraging the individual employee to try and develop his job in his own particular way, and the system of organization should be considered secondary.

Agree _____

Disagree _____

? _____

35. With a definite system for transmitting ideas to those that have the authority to put them into effect, only those following the proper channels of communications should be considered.

Agree _____

Disagree _____

? _____

36. In an organization such as this it would be best if there were a minimum of rules governing the various decisions that have to be made.

Agree _____

Disagree _____

? _____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR
COOPERATION

APPENDIX II

DETERMINING REPRESENTATIVENESS OF THE SAMPLE

Since our inquiry is directed toward providing information about teachers in the Edmonton Public School System, we must, as a necessary step in characterizing this population, establish the representativeness of generalization from the obtained data to the total population. The following section is thus concerned with making a comparison between the sample and actual distributions on a number of factors for which sufficient information is available - namely sex, age, education and teaching experience. One may, therefore, generalize the inferences regarding this restricted population to the whole population, subject to the assumption that if the sample is representative of the total population on these characteristics then it may be considered representative for other characteristics - specifically attitudes toward work.

The following Tables (42, 43, 44, 45 and 46) indicate the actual distributions as between the sample utilized and the total population. Using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the two distributions appear to be from the same population at the 99% level of confidence.

TABLE 42

COMPARISON OF SEX DISTRIBUTION BY LEVEL

Sex	<u>Elementary</u>		<u>Junior High</u>		<u>Senior High</u>	
	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)
Male	23.1	27.9	57.9	52.3	66.3	62.7
Female	76.9	72.1	42.1	47.7	33.7	37.3

TABLE 43

COMPARISON OF AGE DISTRIBUTION BY LEVEL

Age	<u>Elementary</u>		<u>Junior High</u>		<u>Senior High</u>	
	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)
24 or under	21.8	25.0	15.6	23.1	8.2	16.9
25 to 34	36.2	38.2	42.0	41.5	41.1	34.9
35 to 54	29.5	30.9	31.8	24.6	41.1	36.1
55 or over	12.5	5.9	10.6	10.8	9.6	12.1

TABLE 44
COMPARISON OF AMOUNT OF POST SECONDARY EDUCATION
BY LEVEL

Years	<u>Elementary</u>		<u>Junior High</u>		<u>Senior High</u>	
	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)
3 or less	31.5	32.4	16.2	16.9	8.3	1.2
4	49.9	44.1	50.2	49.2	40.2	32.5
5 or more	18.6	23.5	33.6	33.8	51.5	66.2

TABLE 45
COMPARISON OF AMOUNT OF EXPERIENCE AS A
TEACHER BY LEVEL

Years	<u>Elementary</u>		<u>Junior High</u>		<u>Senior High</u>	
	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)
1 to 4	38.8	45.6	37.4	41.5	30.3	44.5
5 to 9	29.3	23.5	30.4	26.2	34.5	22.9
10 or more	31.9	30.9	32.2	32.3	35.2	32.6

TABLE 46

COMPARISON OF AMOUNT OF EXPERIENCE IN THE
EDMONTON PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM BY LEVEL

Years	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)	Actual distribution (%)	Sample distribution (%)
1 to 5	57.6	63.2	56.9	58.4	57.4	51.8
6 to 10	18.3	19.1	17.7	12.4	20.6	14.5
11 or more	24.1	17.7	25.4	29.2	22.0	33.7

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